The Nation.

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The Week.

General Wood was, of course, bound to stand by his action in taking thousands of dollars from the Cuban treasury and giving the money to an American advocate of reciprocity legislation, but he does not mend matters by his explanation. It was his duty, as Military Governor, he says, "to counteract the influence of the powerful Oxnard lobby." What General Wood apparently does not see is, that there was a proper and an improper way of "presenting the case of Cuba and her economic needs to the American people," and that he had no right to use both. He should have told Congress and the country officially, as he did, that the prosperity of Cuba depended upon reciprocity with the United States, but he had no business to go a step further and try "fighting fire with fire." The best proof that it was wrong to use Cuban funds for this purpose is the fact that the matter was kept secret because it was felt that it would hurt the cause of reciprocity—as it plainly has done—if the truth should become known. A fight for a principle is not to be won by opposing a lobby with the weapons of the lobbyist. Congress ought still to pass some measure granting reciprocity, because this is our plain duty, and because our Government is virtually pledged to it. The plea for reciprocity is addressed to the moral sense of the nation, and it is in no wise affected by any wrong which may have been committed in advocating it. The Cubans are not to blame for the poor judgment of their Military Governor, and their interests should not be prejudiced by his mistakes in trying to help them. The incident throws a flood of light on the conditions of military administration of dependencies.

There is no precedent, so far as we can recall, for the endorsement of a President for a second term by conventions of his party meeting more than two years before the next election of the Federal Executive is to be held. Nor was there ever before a case where a man who had been chosen Vice-President and had succeeded to the higher office through the death of his chief, was pledged such support by his party in more than one State before he had been a year in the White House. This is what has happened to Mr. Roosevelt, the Republican State conventions in both Kansas and Pennsylvania having within a fortnight declared for him as their candidate in 1904. "We pledge ourselves," so runs the explicit language of the plank adopted at Harrisburg on June 11, "to his renomination to the great office which he has filled with such ability and patriotism." The Topeka convention declared that "Kansas looks forward with joy to the coming time, but two years distant, when again her delegation, representing a united Republican party, will march under the banners bearing the inscription, 'For President, Theodore Roosevelt.'" It is a noteworthy fact that the Harrisburg pledge comes from a convention controlled by a disreputable boss who seems to get along well with the President; whereas the Republican Senator from Kansas had tried unsuccessfully to boss the party in his State, had opposed Mr. Roosevelt, and had been "turned down" by him more than once, notably in the matter of the Pension Commissionership.

Quay's shrewdness was never so strikingly demonstrated as in his selection of Judge Pennypacker of Philadelphia for nomination as Governor by the Pennsylvania Republican State Convention. "The old man" has learned wisdom during the past dozen years. In 1890 he forced upon an unwilling party the candidacy of that discredited machine politician Delamater, and thereby turned over the Governorship for four years to Pattison, who beat the Republican candidate by 16,554 votes. Eight years earlier, Pattison had also been elected through the folly of the Republican machine, which then insisted upon the nomination of Beaver, and thus provoked a revolt which resulted in the polling of nearly 44,000 votes for an independent Republican, and allowed the Democratic candidate to win by a plurality of about 40,000. This year a man quite as offensive to decent Republicans as was either Beaver in 1882 or Delamater in 1890, Attorney-General Elkin, sought the nomination, but the Senatorial boss refused his consent, and offered instead a judge of ability, high character and corresponding reputation; an historian who lately compared Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, to the disadvantage of the latter (with a bold placing of Quay to Pennsylvania's credit side). Elkin would not submit without a fight, but he could not beat his old master at the trick of packing delegations.

A platform of much better quality than usual is also provided by the Pennsylvania boss this year. The most important planks in any such deliverance are those which relate to Cuba and the Philippines. There is much less "hifalutin" in the resolutions on these questions than could have been expected. Not a word is said about "the flag staying put" in the Philippines. On the contrary, stress is laid upon the progress which has been made in developing native rule, satisfaction is expressed over the fact that "the Filipino people have been started upon the road of self-government," and the way is left open for the acceptance by the party, later on, of the policy of giving the natives independence. The plank regarding Cuba ends with this clear and explicit demand for action by a hesitating Congress:

> "We endorse the recommendation of President Roosevelt, that the United States should enter into reciprocal trade relations with the Republic of Cuba that shall be mutually advantageous to it and to the United States; and all efforts to that end of our representatives in both houses of Congress we cordially endorse."

President Roosevelt writes to the Secretary of the American Unitarian Association—which had protested against a "policy of coercion" in the Philippines, and asked the substitution of a "policy of conciliation and good will"—that there is now almost none of the coercion policy left, "because the insurrection has been so entirely overcome that, save in a very few places, peace—and with peace the 'policy of conciliation and good will'—obtains throughout the Philippines." Mr. Roosevelt says also that the bill regarding the islands which has just passed the Senate, if enacted into law, "will enable us to proceed even more rapidly and efficiently than hitherto along the lines of securing peace, prosperity, and personal liberty to the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands." Proceeding more rapidly and efficiently than hitherto signifies nothing except doing what we have done heretofore—that is, killing everything over ten, making a solitude and calling it peace; but if any bill pending in Congress looks towards personal liberty to the inhabitants of the Philippines, it is the House bill, and not the Senate measure. The latter provides only that the President shall order the taking of a census, and that thereafter the Philippine Commission shall report whether they think all or any of the islands are ready for popular representative government. The House bill provides for the election of a legislative body, fixing the time for its meeting, as well as for the choice of two delegates to our Congress. President Taft of the Philippine Commission earnestly favors these fundamental features of the House bill, and it is to be regretted that President Roosevelt in this letter did not endorse the better measure.

The cable reports great activity at the Vatican, and almost as much visiting and card-exchanging between Gov. Taft and the recognized envoys in that quarter as

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is now taking place at London in connection with another event. And yet we are solemnly told that Gov. Taft's mission is not diplomacy but business. This might lead to the inquiry, What is diplomacy if it is not business? What is diplomacy for, if not for the transaction of some kind of business? It is not merely for bowing and scraping and exchanging calls. If that had been the object of Mr. Taft's visit, he would not have presented any letter outlining the business which took him to Rome. To ward off the imputation of holding diplomatic relations with the Vatican—which the American people certainly would not approve of—the point has been made that Mr. Taft's letter to the Vatican was from the Secretary of War, not from the Secretary of State. That is of no importance, however. Both Secretaries act under the orders of the President. President Grant negotiated the purchase of the island of San Domingo through an aide-de-camp, and he had a clear Constitutional right to do so. The fact is that we have entered into diplomatic relations with the Vatican. The letter of Secretary Root makes that fact perfectly clear, for if we intend to go on and expropriate the friars in the Philippines, whether the Pope agrees to it or not, then there is no reason why Gov. Taft should consult him at all. If the object of the consultation is to agree upon methods the most satisfactory, or the least distasteful, to the Pope, a consultation to that end is diplomacy.

Announcement was made last week of a combination of ship-yards embracing five on the Atlantic and one on the Pacific Coast. A statement of the plans in contemplation by the members was made by Mr. Lewis Nixon of the Elizabethport yards, and we are pleased to note that the intention is to enter into active competition with English and German builders in supplying ships for all nations. At the present time, Mr. Nixon says, "the yards of this combination have contracts for three years ahead." "Some of us," he adds, "are not content to see Asia and Latin-America going to England and Germany for their vessels, and we propose to put ourselves into shape to secure this work." There it is again. We have often said that Americans could build ships just as cheaply as foreigners, in opposition to the contention of the Commissioner of Navigation at Washington that the cost in this country was $160 per gross ton for steel ships, as against $140 per ton on the other side. We pointed out at the time that the difference cited by the Commissioner was a difference in the charge made by the shipbuilders respectively, but was not necessarily a difference in cost. It might be merely a difference in profit. Mr. Cramp's statement, made in a magazine article some years ago, pointed to that conclusion, as Mr. Nixon's statement does now. Mr. Nixon enlarges upon this theme in a truly patriotic way, and we are moved to congratulate him on his enterprise and foresight. He perhaps overestimates the needs of the United States for war-ships and big guns, but he cannot overestimate the needs of the world's commerce, and he can hardly put too high a value on the skill and resources of American designers, builders, and artisans.

In the *Nineteenth Century* for June, Mr. Edmund Robertson, Q.C., M.P., has an article on the Shipping Combine that introduces a new element into the dispute on his side of the water. The plan of the Morgan syndicate as announced was to organize a company under a charter from some American State, which company should acquire the shares of certain British and American steamship companies. The plan provided, for example, that the seven hundred and fifty shares of the Oceanic Steam Navigation Company (White Star Line) should be so acquired. These are all the shares of that company. The shares of various other British companies were to be similarly acquired, but the ships were to remain under the British flag. Now Mr. Robertson points out that, according to British law, they cannot remain under the British flag. The right of a British owner to sell his ship or his shares to a foreigner is not disputed, but the British law says that no ship shall be deemed British unless wholly owned by British subjects. It is immaterial where the ship is built or what is the nationality of her crew, but the ownership of a British vessel must be British. "If an unqualified person," says the Merchant Shipping Act, "acquires as owner, otherwise than by such transmission as hereinbefore provided for, an interest either legal or beneficial in a ship using a British flag and assuming the British character, that interest shall be subject to forfeiture under this act." Transfers to foreigners without the intention to retain the British character are legal, but other transfers simply forfeit the registry. If Mr. Robertson is right in his contention, the question becomes important, what flag the British-built ships of the Morgan combine will carry. They cannot remain under the British flag, because they are not owned by Britons. They cannot come under the American flag, because they were not built in the United States.

Vice-Chancellor Emery's decision against the Steel Corporation, in the New Jersey suit to prevent the company from converting $200,000,000 preferred stock into bonds, perhaps caused the more surprise because of Judge Lacombe's contrary decision, exactly a week before, in New York city. But the New York suit was brought in a Federal court, and the question on which Judge Lacombe had to rule was the argument that such conversion was unconstitutional. Issue and sale of the preferred stock, the applicants contended, established a contract in perpetuity for the maintenance of existing relations between corporation and shareholder. To alter such relations, in the face of protest by any shareholder, violated such a contract; therefore, it was alleged, both the conversion plan and the law which authorized it must be repugnant to the Federal Constitution. Judge Lacombe thought otherwise, ruling distinctly that "permanency in the relative proportions of the different securities was no part of the contract." The ground of the New Jersey suit is different, and the Vice-Chancellor's decision does not, therefore, contravene Judge Lacombe. It follows very broad lines of equity. It sweeps aside all question of a contract, goes behind the outward form of exchange of bonds for shares, and defines the proposed operation as a distribution of assets to shareholders. Such distribution, if permissible under the present circumstances—and the court does not say it is—must be absolutely made *pro rata*. If the company chooses to stipulate such conditions as surrender of shares in exchange for the credit assets distributed, it must see to it that all shareholders assent to the condition. If any shareholder refuses such assent, the company nevertheless must hold itself ready to provide him his due proportion. It cannot transfer to any other person the proportional right in question. But the Steel Trust's conversion plan explicitly provides that in case the offer "shall not be accepted by holders of preferred stock to the full extent of $250,000,000 bonds," the company shall then issue to the banking syndicate, in exchange for preferred stock and cash, upon the same terms, the bonds not accepted by any shareholder.

As a landmark in American public finance, the fact is interesting that outstanding gold certificates have, for the first time in our history, reached a total equal to outstanding United States notes. Since the Act of May 31, 1878, stopping the cancellation of legal tenders, the amount outstanding has remained fixed at $346,861,016. On June 10, Treasury certificates issued against the deposit of gold with the Government, and circulating as money, showed an aggregate of $347,021,089. Comparisons have been made at Washington with the opening months of 1895, when the country's gold fund reached low level. Not the least curious among these comparisons is that as to outstanding gold certificates. As against the very large total just referred to, there were afloat on February 1, 1895, only $52,985,000. The immense increase since that time, however, is perfectly comprehensible. Within the seven subsequent years, the esti-

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mated increase in this country's total money circulation has been $640,000,000, which has hardly been in excess of the normal demands of expanding trade. Such an increase could not have come from the legal-tender notes. The old greenbacks were limited in amount, and the Treasury notes of 1890 have actually been reduced, since 1900, though with an equivalent issue in silver dollars or certificates. National banknotes are, it is true, some $150,000,000 larger in amount than when 1895 began; but these are now decreasing. Therefore the needs for increased currency supplies have been filled from the gold markets of the world, and the gold has passed into circulation in the form of certificates. At the present date, 41 per cent. of the country's estimated circulation is in the form of gold.

Although there has been little in Connecticut politics for months other than the question of reform in legislative representation, when the subject was submitted concretely to the electors on Monday, in the adoption or rejection of the new Constitution, much apathy was shown. This may have been due, in part, to the fact that there was little in the document to invite support. But, on the other hand, its adoption would have continued indefinitely the present inequitable system of representation, and would have placed serious obstacles in the path of Constitutional reform. It is surprising, therefore, that the cities did not cast a larger vote in opposition. For the opportunity of reform yet afforded them by the rejection of the Constitution they are largely indebted to the selfish voters in the little towns, who were influenced either by their resentment over the larger representation grudgingly granted to the cities by the Constitutional Convention, or by the fact that under the plan proposed they would lose one of their two Representatives.

When Mr. Chamberlain seems to be blinding all eyes with his schemes for Imperial Federation—incidentally evading the criticism of sundry dubious past deeds—it is gratifying to find in an influential Canadian journal a disposition to examine the whole matter coldly, in the light of reason. The Toronto *Globe*, the chief organ of Liberal opinion, while not unfriendly to the idea of an Imperial Zollverein, still sees the great difficulties in the way, and suggests caution in counsel. Politically, it remarks, a tariff union must offend all English free-traders and many colonial protectionists. Mr. Borden, the Canadian Minister of War, who is now in London, appears to be of the same mind, as he virtually rebuked an over-zealous fellow-countryman last week for his tariff-union activities. The more far-sighted of the Canadian Liberals see clearly that this proposed tariff union must preclude reciprocal arrangements with other countries. In a period of prosperity, Canada may not feel the pressure of the present disadvantageous tariff relations with the United States and Germany, but prosperity cannot last for ever, and a year of crop failures would show Canada the folly of limiting her markets. Sir Wilfrid Laurier undoubtedly is a convinced Imperialist, but he will hardly put the commercial policy of the Dominion in the hands of a brilliant Colonial Secretary with a past to retrieve.

The seriousness of the situation is not fully grasped, even in London, and Washington is completely indifferent to a matter of the highest concern. Mr. Chamberlain has so often played Imperial Federation as a matter of temporary expediency that it is hard to realize not only that he is committed at last to his own doctrine, but that he has brought over an unwilling Ministry to his project. On no other ground can we account for the failure to strike the corn tax from the war schedule. There is undoubtedly danger that Great Britain may be dragged out of her position of light and leading into the confusion of tariff warfare. We need hardly say that our farmers would feel very quickly the effect of a preferential on colonial wheat, and it is strange that even the protectionists do not take every step to avert such a discrimination. If it should be asked how Congress at Washington can influence Mr. Chamberlain and the colonial premiers in conference, the answer flies to meet the question: Negotiate promptly a reasonable reciprocity treaty with Canada. The Canadians desire it, for their possible English market is small compared with what their American market might be. And certainly our grain-growers will see that no importation of Canadian grain can hit them so hard as the restriction of the British market would. Mr. Chamberlain's scheme may, of course, break of its own unwieldiness—we trust it will; but Congress could at any moment put a spoke in the Zollverein wheel, to the great advantage of both Canada and the United States. Here is an opportunity for the Democrats and for the enlightened Republicans who follow Congressman Babcock.

If the Irish Nationalists are never so happy as when they are unhappy, they must be in a quite ecstatic mood just now, with troubles thickening upon them as they are. In addition to "proclaiming" the United Irish League, the Government has set on foot a legal process to restrain the agitation for compulsory expropriation of Irish landlords. The weapon selected is a writ of injunction against the Nationalist leaders. By means of it the hope is that every orator and agitator may be held in contempt of court, with imprisonment and ruinous fines and the liability to have all his papers attached staring him in the face. This would be "government by injunction" with a vengeance. It may succeed, though, if it does, it will be the first time that a policy of repression and coercion in Ireland has accomplished anything but the firmer union of the people in a more passionate hatred of English rule. Already the Nationalists are accepting the challenge and flaming against the Government. "We shall have stirring times at the coronation," says Mr. John Redmond exultantly. It certainly seems a pity that the pacification of the Boers should have come in time for the ceremony, but only to emphasize the inextinguishable bitterness of a nation at England's door. The revival of Irish clamor and of Irish hate at this time is only one melancholy illustration more of the failure of that English policy in Ireland which even so stout a Tory as Coleridge called one long record of imbecility and weakness.

The impressive majority by which the French Chamber of Deputies sustained the new Premier on Thursday—the vote was 329 to 124—is no sign that his programme of tax reform will have effectual support. Naturally the groups which have agreed upon the selection of a Prime Minister may be counted upon to give him at least one formal vote; no one but the Duc de Broglie, we believe, has been so unlucky as to be voted down at the first session of a new Parliament. It was the oratory of M. Jaurès which gave distinction to the otherwise conventional debate of Thursday. His declaration that *revanche* for Alsace-Lorraine is now a counsel of folly expressed what the more thoughtful in France feel, but dare not say. His demonstration that the Franco-Russian alliance promises not the restoration of lost territory, but the maintenance of the *status quo*, was illuminating. Many who by no means follow Jaurès in his theory of disarmament, will begin to question the value of a formidable alliance that only guarantees a *status quo* which is nowhere threatened. It was his speech which gave significance to a session otherwise devoted to safe Ministerial promises of economy and tax reform. His obvious friendliness to the new Radical Ministry may be taken as a sign that Premier Combes may, for the present at least, reckon upon the support of the Parliamentary Socialists, M. Waldeck-Rousseau's faithful allies. But of course the test of the new Government, which starts out auspiciously, will come when it presents, or fails to present, its promised progressive income tax. Majorities as large as M. Combes's first have melted away with amazing rapidity.

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"TEACHING THE PRESIDENT A LESSON."

All the Washington dispatches agree that the President has addressed himself to Congress in vain, and that Cuban reciprocity is beaten. His special message has only intensified existing antagonisms, and widened instead of closing the breach in his own party. His outspoken enemies within the Republican ranks had already burned their bridges behind them, and continue defiant; his half-hearted supporters are more than ever reeds shaken in the wind. Thus, in spite of Republican pledge and boast, and notwithstanding the President's bold summons, there is every indication, as we go to press, that Congress will adjourn without lifting a finger in aid of Cuba.

This effect defective comes by cause, and what that cause is, the Washington politicians take no pains to conceal. They have used the Cuban business simply as a convenient club with which to punish the President. As a leading Republican of the House explains the case, "We have had to teach Mr. Roosevelt a lesson." That is to say, they did not love Cuba less, but disliked the President more. In his Cuban policy he could be easiest thwarted and humiliated, and their accumulated rancor and resentment they decided to glut in defeating him on that battle-field. That, we firmly believe, is the true explanation of his failure. He had affronted the most powerful managers of his party. They have not liked his ways, they have determined to blight his political prospects, and so, by means of the Cuban question, have undertaken to set him the "lesson" that no President who ventures to assert his independence of the politicians can get any favors from Congress, or hope for a renomination. That is the real political significance of the Cuban fiasco.

Few people not in close touch with affairs at Washington have known how large is the number of Congressmen hugging secret grievances against President Roosevelt. In public, of course, they have spoken as his supporters; but those behind the scenes have understood that it was but another case of Pitt and the great nobles. "They supported him," writes Lord Rosebery, "on their necks, for his foot was there." Mr. Roosevelt has heaped up slights to members of Congress—or what they consider slights. They have long regarded themselves as a privileged guild. Theirs it was to name public officers, to determine party policy, to make patronage wash legislation as one hand washes another; and there were certain rules of the political game, as it was played between the Capitol and the White House, which they had come to think of as possessing the force of imprescriptible law. But President Roosevelt has not observed those rules. He has been horribly irregular. He has appointed men to office without first consulting Representatives and Senators. In endless instances he has rejected their recommendations. Their sensibilities he has ruffled, their arrogance he has given cold douches. He has done it smilingly, even hilariously, as if he thought that was just the sort of thing they would like. But they have not liked it, and they have silently bided their time. In the Cuban imbroglio they saw their great opportunity, and are now chuckling with delight to think how they have utilized it to make him know his place. They have, they say, sent the young man to school.

To be entirely frank, we think that there were certain "lessons" which the President needed to be taught in this Cuban affair. One of them was that he had entirely underestimated the cohesive power of the protectionist system of public plunder. He asserted in his off-hand way that a reduction in the duties on Cuban products had nothing to do with tariff revision. He thought he could throw cold water on all other reciprocity treaties, and still obtain Cuban reciprocity. That was the great mistake of his annual message to Congress. It was but a jaunty view of the situation which he then took. He should be wiser now. He has been taught that a protective tariff is only a system of balancing one selfish interest against another; that each one thinks it has a vested right to its own share of the spoils; and that it will rage like a bear robbed of its whelps against all the others if they dare to touch the part of the law written for its benefit. To talk of "honor" to men with such an idea of their protectionist booty well in hand, was to use to them an unknown language. This is a truth which, we may presume, the President has now learned in the dear school of experience.

The other lesson which the events of the past six months should have enabled him to master is, the true secret of his political power. Whenever he has tried to be "practical," he has failed. Roosevelt as a practical man always reminds us of Disraeli's definition of the practical man—the one who practises the errors of his predecessors. In that way he does not get on a step. When he diplomatically puts himself into the hands of the politicians, the invariable result is their triumph and his own undoing. This fact glares at one from his Cuban experience. For six months he has been dealt with insincerely by his Congressional advisers. They have cheated him throughout with false promises. They tricked him into believing that his wisest course was to trust to them, and not appeal over their heads to the people. When it was too late, when the psychological moment for a Cuban message was long past, he did, indeed, come out in an appeal to the country. But, alas, he found it jaded with the long discussions and delays, the summer break-up already upon it, and the adjournment of Congress obviously near, and he got but a feeble response compared with that which would have echoed through the land had he spoken out three months ago. Not in such secret negotiations, in such bartering, and bargaining, and being "diplomatic," lies the hiding of Roosevelt's power, but in clear honesty, in dauntless courage, and in flouting of the boss while going direct to the people.

Every one can see that the present crisis is big with the political fate of President Roosevelt. His defeat in the Cuban matter has been brought about by political managers who are hostile to him in their hearts, and who are determined to prevent his renomination. If he falters, or compromises with them, he is lost. But he can beat them all if he remains "unshaken, unseduced, unterrified," another Abdiel. The politicians are teaching the country a lesson, as well as the President. People see how the bosses are quietly endeavoring to monopolize all forms of the political activity of the nation. From primary to Cabinet their ambition runs, as they would have their power extend. This conditions of things the majority of Americans look upon with loathing. The system is fairly forcing the people out of doors to become statesmen, as was said of the English Conservatives. But a leader is necessary in the revolt against the tyranny of the machine, and if President Roosevelt chose to fling himself upon the popular sympathies and support, and assert the right of the people to govern themselves without consulting the bosses, he could make himself strong enough to defy the confederated politicians.

THE STRIKE UNVEILED.

Sooner than could have been expected, the President's inquiry, through Labor Commissioner Wright, into the causes of the coal strike, has borne fruit. It has given us the correspondence between the operators and the miners, previous to the strike. This yields more light on the controversy than the public has before had. It makes clear the attitude of both employers and men. What the latter demanded, and the reasons the former gave for refusing to grant it, we now know for the first time. All doubt as to the merits of the dispute, or as to the one way in which it can be settled, is removed by the letters made public on June 11. We have at last a breath of wholesome publicity, and its value is instantly apparent.

Why the correspondence had been kept back so long, we can only guess. President Mitchell expresses his surprise, if not pain, at the action of the operators in publishing it, and almost intimates a breach of good faith. But if it all was certain to reach the pub-

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lic, in the end, by means of a report to President Roosevelt, it is just as well to cut short the process and let us have the documents at once. In them any one can see reasons why both sides should have felt a little reluctance to make the facts public. We see the operators admitting a past blunder, and determined now to retrieve it, if possible —at any rate, not to repeat it. We discover the miners taking a most unreasonable position, and coolly proposing in private to mulct the dear public to which they were only appealing for sympathy. There was this awkwardness for either party in publicity; and that fact, together with a secret hope of a secret settlement, may have led to the steady befogging of the public in the whole affair. But a west wind has now blown away the fog, and the actual situation lies plain to every eye.

First, we note the tacit confession of the operators. It lies implicitly in their argument against doing now what they practically did in 1900. They point out the absurdity of trying to assimilate conditions in anthracite mines to those in the bituminous field; they show how the different mines in the hard-coal region present such differing problems that a uniform rate of wages among them all is impossible; they assert that an agreement on a wage scale for a year is unbusinesslike; they resent union dictation, and say they must be allowed to manage their own affairs. Very good; but in 1900, under political pressure in a Presidential campaign, they assented to every one of these particulars. In other words, they then allowed the camel's head to be inserted, and they now have to fight desperately to prevent the animal from occupying the whole tent, or else knocking it flat over their heads.

The arguments which the operators give for retracing their steps are certainly conclusive. In 1900 they increased wages 10 per cent., but their books show that the result was a diminished efficiency on the part of the miners of 12 per cent., on the average. This year the demand was for a further increase of 20 per cent. in wages. The owners might well be staggered if this portended a further decrease in efficiency of 24 per cent., reckoning the amount of coal mined per man. Saying nothing about this, they offered President Mitchell, as they offer Commissioner Wright, free access to their books to prove that they could not advance wages with coal at its present selling price.

What was the secret answer of the labor leader to this? Why, a cool urging of the operators to raise the price of coal to a figure which would make up the difference! He was told, in other words, that the owners found the union miners very idle and arrogant and wasteful and unproductive; they did not keep to their contracts, they did not obey the law of Pennsylvania, they did not mine coal as they should. Very well, was President Mitchell's calm reply, raise the price of coal to the public, and then you can afford to pay the increased wages we demand. The best comment on this is a story told the other day by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, recounting the advice given by an Englishman, a Scotchman, and an Irishman respectively to a gentleman whose servant was constantly breaking articles in the household. The Englishman, in his blunt, honest way, said to the employer, "Oh, get rid of him—dismiss him." The Scotchman's advice was, "Stop the money out of his wages." "But," said the master, "he breaks more than his wages amount to." "Then," said the Irishman, "raise his wages."

The operators do not fail to point out another reason why wages cannot be raised, with the effect of increasing the price of anthracite. The coal has to be sold in competition with bituminous. The latter, is, in fact, encroaching all the time upon the market for hard coal, and would instantly profit by any further advantage in comparative price. It should not have been necessary to tell this to President Mitchell, as he is a bituminous miner, and represents a union primarily of workers in the soft-coal fields. This is one absurdity of his union—it attempts to combine miners of different products in severe competition. But it is pretty evident that he cared for none of these things. His strike was not an economic movement, but one half-political, half-sentimental. He evidently thought to repeat his success of 1900, when Senator Hanna came to his rescue. But the Chairman of the Republican National Committee in a Presidential year, and the leading spirit of the Civic Federation now, are two very different men. Political pressure could not be applied in 1902 as it was two years ago. President Mitchell's reckoning upon that influence went wrong.

Nor does it seem that his offer of arbitration was much better conceived. It has, indeed, an air of shrewdness to propose to leave all questions to Archbishop Ireland and Bishop Potter, with a third man to be named by them, but it can scarcely impose upon practical people. Arbitrators must know something about the thing to be arbitrated. We have always wished that the operators could have seen their way to refer the controversy to a competent and impartial arbitration; but if none such was suggested, and if, as would appear to be the case, the chief thing in dispute was the demand of a heterogeneous labor union, not able to control its own men and confessedly wasteful and inefficient, to be allowed further to take the management of the coal business out of the hands of the operators, and make the consuming public foot the bill—we do not see how arbitration could well apply. A foolish strike can be settled only by the foolish strikers going back to work. We look to see that result greatly hastened by the revelation to the public of the indefensible nature of the position taken by the miners.

AN INVESTIGATION ON THE SPOT.

A petition was presented in the House on Thursday by Mr. McCall of Massachusetts, asking that Congress send a committee of its own members to the Philippine Islands, to make an investigation on the spot of the needs of the islands and of the duties of the United States in reference to them. The petition was signed by Charles Francis Adams, Andrew Carnegie, Carl Schurz, Edwin Burritt Smith, and Herbert Welsh as a committee of the Anti-Imperialist Leagues of the United States.

The reasons assigned for such an investigation are overwhelmingly strong. The strongest of all is the fact that there are fundamental differences between the civil and the military authorities as to what ought to be done or permitted in the way of self-government in the islands, and these differences have found expression in the opposing bills now pending in Congress. Gov. Taft and Acting Governor Wright desire to have a legislative assembly elected by the people without delay, and vested with certain powers of self-government, including the sending of commissioners to the United States. Their views have been embodied in a bill reported to the House by the Committee on Insular Affairs. The Lodge bill, which has passed the Senate, is based upon different ideas. It proposes to continue the present régime indefinitely. Probably the House will maintain its own bill against that of the Senate, and then there will be conference committees, of which some compromise measure will be the issue. The fact that such grave differences exist among the authorities of the islands, and in Congress itself, is a sufficient reason, if there were no other, for an investigation on the spot.

There are other reasons, however, for such an investigation. We have never had a coroner's inquest on any of the victims of torture and assassination in the islands. We have had courts-martial, but never a trial by jury of the vicinage. The facts which have reached us from time to time, and which are still coming, have been distorted by distance and by attempted concealment. The Filipinos have had no representation. The testimony of Sixto Lopez was refused by the Senate Investigating Committee, although he was here in person. Is it not time to give a hearing to the people who are most interested in the government of the Philippines? Have not the American people also an interest in learning the truth? And how can the truth be learned except by hearing both sides?

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When the first reports of torture and murder leaked out at Washington, they evoked a cry of horror from all parts of the country, and President Roosevelt echoed the common feeling when he sent his dispatch to Gen. Chaffee, in which he declared that nothing would be held to excuse the infliction of torture by American soldiers. It really looked as though something would be done in the way of punishing the guilty, of preventing outrages, and especially of stopping the suppression of the facts. But the reformation was short-lived. A counter-cry was started, that those who accused Waller and Smith of barbarity were "attacking the army." They were starting "a fire in the rear" of our boys in blue. According to this theory, anybody who wore the blue could do anything he liked *except* complain against another boy in blue.

If Waller gave an order to massacre his baggage-carriers, he was the army; but the subordinate officer who protested against the order—what or who was he? Was he attacking the army when he said that it would be an act of wanton cruelty to shoot these men? When the court-martial found Lieut. Preston Brown guilty of shooting an unarmed prisoner in his custody, and sentenced him to five years at hard labor in the penitentiary, were the officers of this court attacking the army? If they were not, how could it be said that anybody else who disapproved of the acts of Lieut. Brown and his kind was attacking the army? Yet this counter-cry had a considerable effect on the minds of Republicans, who feared that their party would lose ground by reason of the barbarities practised upon a distant people who were struggling for liberty, and who had never harmed or offended us.

That there is a chapter of horrors in those islands yet uncovered there is too much reason to believe, since new cases are coming to light almost daily. A few days ago the report of Capt. West (hitherto suppressed) on charges of cruelty preferred against Lieut. Arnold of Iowa came out accidentally. On Tuesday week came a report from Manila, where another court-martial was "attacking the army" by accusing Major Glenn and Lieut. Gaujot of cruelty in administering the water cure to Filipinos. It is another step in our Rake's Progress that Major Glenn treated the affair jauntily, and contended that the water cure was not painful. Why he should take the trouble to administer it if it were not painful he did not explain, but his counsel offered to prove that the water cure was a common practice in New York when Theodore Roosevelt was a Police Commissioner. This lie was properly excluded. Lieut. Gaujot, the dispatch says, "offered no defence; he admitted that he had administered the water cure to three priests." On Thursday the testimony of Mark H. Evans, formerly of the Thirty-second Volunteer Infantry, was taken by the Senate Committee. He "attacked the army" by testifying to seeing the water cure administered in the Province of Batan; also to the burning of villages where insurgents were located. He also related incidents where natives were ducked under water for half a minute at a time, to compel them to tell where arms were concealed.

If there were no other reason for an investigation on the spot, the fact that all the testimony obtainable from the War Department on this subject leaks out by chance, or has to be dragged out by main strength, would itself be ample.

A CURB FOR "PETTY BOSSES."

The threatened withdrawal of Congressman Burton of Cleveland, in resentment at the interference with his campaign by some of Hanna's office-holders, appears to have been averted. It is said that the trouble has been compromised. But before it is forgotten, the occasion should be seized to point out the fact that the meddling of Federal officials in party politics has again become a vice in our public service, requiring the attention of the President. Mr. Burton's case shows the lengths which the evil has run. His disgust was so great at the arrogance of what he calls the "petty bosses" who hold the Federal offices in Cleveland, that he proposed not to stand for Congress again. This would have meant the loss to his party not only of a valuable Representative, but very likely of a seat in the House. The difficulty has been patched up, the dispatches say, but the time is evidently coming when President Roosevelt will have to issue an order defining and curbing the partisan activities of Federal office-holders.

Few realize how insidiously this mischief reared its head anew during President McKinley's term of office. Under the shadow of his benevolent indifference, postmasters and collectors resumed their old habits of running conventions and managing campaigns. Van Cott and Bidwell in this city, for example, figured as district leaders and county committeemen, just as if we were still in the mire of the spoils system. The old Executive prohibitions were allowed to lapse; and how naturally the office-holders took up again the notion that their first duty was to the party machine, we see by the Cleveland episode. Congressman Burton's protest ought to bring it smartly home to the President that the hour for rebuking and suppressing this pernicious practice has arrived.

We are the more emboldened to hope that he will take prompt and effective action when we remember how properly and resolutely he has exerted his authority in the case of other Federal employees. There was Funston. He came home with voluble and indecent outcries against public men and newspapers in this country that dared to "talk" about the Philippines. There was far too much talking, he vociferated. "Right you are," said the President swiftly, "as far as army officers are concerned; so you will kindly hold your peace from this time forth." Then we have the more recent case of the clerk in the War Department who was dismissed for writing letters to the press over her own name, reflecting upon the President. That could not be tolerated. It was insubordination. But what we maintain is that the impropriety was no greater, the injury to the public service no more evident, the demand for Executive intervention no more imperative, than in the case of Federal office-holders who undertake to run errands and do dirty work for party bosses.

One glance backward will show from what moorings the Federal service has been allowed slowly to drift. President Hayes issued a civil-service order in 1877 in which he said: "No officer [of the general Government] should be required or permitted to take part in the management of political organizations, caucuses, conventions, or political campaigns." That was definite, and laid down the correct principle. It had, too, an immediate effect, though later on the order was not rigidly enforced. President Cleveland's order of July 19, 1886, was more vague, unfortunately, using the elastic term "pernicious activity." But the end he aimed at was explicitly stated by him in the cases of the removed District Attorneys, in November of that year: it was the suppression of "the use of official influence in political campaigns," together with the "avoiding any pretence of control over the political action of others by reason of official place." In general, Mr. Cleveland held that "active partisan service" was improper in a Federal office-holder. Certainly the practical effect of his attitude and his orders was to free us from such scandals as we have seen under the present régime in Manhattan and in Brooklyn, and as have come to the surface so sensationally in Cleveland. Mr. Roosevelt should not let the opportunity slip to strike a good blow for reform, and to check a swelling evil, by letting it be known what the standard is which he believes in and up to which he will compel his subordinates to live. He cannot do better than to reaffirm the order of President Hayes. That was precise as well as comprehensive, and, by making the test the definite one of having any share in party management, puts it in the power of both office-holder and public to know exactly what is forbidden.

Of course, there will be grieved protests from the "petty bosses," and from the bigger animals on whose backs they

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ride, that this would be to interfere with the "political rights" of American citizens. But the office-holder is under bonds which do not fetter the average citizen. He must, as we have seen in the War Department instance, refrain from public criticism of his superiors. If that is insubordination, properly to be punished, if the Funston gag was warranted, then it is no hardship on the general run of Federal office-holders to compel them to stick to their official duties and let politics alone. Their alleged right to pack a caucus and dictate a nomination they surrendered when they took office; just as truly as a clergyman surrenders his right to teach in opposition to the views of the church to whose creed he subscribes, or a professor to work against the peace of a college in which he holds a chair. The answer in all cases is the same—if you want unlimited rights, resign your office, your pulpit, your professorship. In office, it is service of the public, not of party, that is required. These would-be bosses, these political busybodies and intriguers and stirrers up of strife, take far too high a view of themselves. Their true category is simply that where Canning placed the tide-waiters of his day,

> "Each a gentleman at large,
> Fed and lodged at public charge."

As such, their pretence of a right to sway party counsels and dictate party action is preposterous. They need to be bitted and bridled, and President Roosevelt is just the horseman, we think, to do the job.

STATE BANKS AND BANKING LAWS

According to the last report of the Comptroller of the Currency, there were 5,204 banks in the United States organized under State authority, exclusive of loan and trust companies, savings banks, and private banks. The number of national banks at the same time was 4,279. The reports of the condition of State banks, available at the Comptroller's office, were not complete. The aggregate capital of the 4,983 banks reporting was $255,000,000. That of the national banks was $663,000,000, or nearly three times as much.

Why should there be any State banks at all when the national system is so easy of access and affords to its members such advantages in the way of prestige and public confidence? Chiefly because the smallest capital permitted to a national bank is $25,000. The requirements of State laws as to capital are various. Ten States leave the amount of capital wholly to the discretion of the bankers. Virginia requires a capital of at least $500 for any incorporated company, and does not make a distinction between banking and other companies. Generally, the capital requirements of the States are less than those of the national law, and this fact chiefly accounts for the existence of State banks. For the most part, they are the banks of the small towns, in the Middle, Southern, Western, and Pacific States—generally towns where the capital employed is less than $25,000 to each bank. Another reason for the existence of State banks is that in most States they are allowed to lend money on landed security, whereas national banks cannot. In California more than one-third of the loans of banks incorporated under the State law are secured by real estate.

As there are forty-eight Legislatures, including those of the Territories, a great variety of bank legislation is possible, but its extent and scope could hardly be imagined without such a guide as has been supplied to us in a recent monograph of 117 pages by Mr. George E. Barnett of the Johns Hopkins University, published by the press of that institution. Mr. Barnett has here found a neglected field. It was well worth study, in both its legal and its economical aspects, and the author has shown himself well qualified for his task. The diversities of legislation respecting incorporation, capital, real-estate loans, stockholders' liability, and public supervision are carefully traced, and the judicial decisions based upon them pointed out.

It is curious to note that both North Dakota and South Dakota have laws requiring all persons doing a banking business to become incorporated, and that the highest court of the former State held the law to be a proper exercise of the police power, while the corresponding tribunal of the latter declared it to be an infringement of the common rights of the citizen, and hence as unconstitutional as it would be to prohibit men from being carpenters or gardeners unless they were incorporated. The South Dakota court held that banking without the note-issuing function is not a franchise, but a right at common law. This is a sound judgment, but if one goes back far enough in past history, he will find that it was originally a common-law right even when accompanied with the function of note issue. The Bank of New York existed and did a regular banking business, including the issue of circulating notes, for eight years before it was incorporated, and its right to do so was not questioned. Going still further back, it was held by the Privy Council that private individuals in the American colonies had the right to issue notes to circulate as money, if people were willing to take them. In fact, many such notes did so circulate in the eighteenth century in the province of Massachusetts Bay.

Side by side with the 5,204 State banks there are (or were in 1899) 4,168 private banks. Private banks are of two kinds: (1) as an adjunct to brokerage, or dealing in foreign exchange, in the large cities; (2) as a means of furnishing credit in communities smaller than those which support either national or State banks. Of the former kind the houses of J. P. Morgan & Co. and Brown Brothers are familiar types. In the large cities these are as important as any class of banks. They make loans, and they receive deposits, and sometimes they pay interest on deposits, but their business is mainly conducted on lines different from that of the ordinary commercial bank. The second kind of private banks are identical in character with the State banks. The only difference is in the fact that the latter are incorporated, and thus subjected to whatever laws exist in their respective States providing for examination and publication of reports. In order to extend and enforce such supervision, there has been a tendency in State legislation during recent years to require private banks to become incorporated, and to reduce the limit of capitalization for this purpose. Thus, if a State fixes the limit of $15,000 as the smallest amount of capital for an incorporated bank, and if the Legislature wishes to compel all banks to be incorporated, it commonly lowers the limit to the capital of the smallest existing private bank. Three States, however (North Carolina, New Jersey, and Wisconsin) accomplish the same end in a direct manner. They require all private banks to be examined and to make reports in the same way as incorporated banks.

Mr. Barnett finds that the right of note issue has had little influence in bringing State banks into the national system. When the National Bank Act was amended in 1900 by lowering the capital limit to $25,000, allowing the issue of notes to the par value of the bonds, reducing the tax on circulation one-half, and supplying a 2 per cent. bond upon which the premium was relatively small, it was supposed that most, if not all, of the State banks of $25,000 capital would come into the national system. The result did not correspond to this expectation. In States like the Dakotas, where the national banking system was the prevailing and popular one, the opportunity was generally availed of, not for the purpose of issuing circulating notes, but in order to be in the fashion. In other States, like Michigan, Missouri, and California, where more than 500 State banks existed, and where that system was the predominating one, only twenty-seven new national banks have been formed. The State system prevailed in the South, also, except in Texas, whose Constitution prohibits the granting of bank charters altogether. The same result followed in the South; hardly any addition to the national system came from the change in the national law. Mr. Barnett thinks that the advantages, if any, offered by

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note-issuing under the national system are offset by the prohibition of loans on real estate under the national law. He thinks, also, that the permission to lend on real estate will give an increasing advantage to State banks in the trans-Missouri States, as well as in the South, as these States become less dependent on long-mortgage loans from the East. The growth of State banking will then be shown in the enlarged capital of existing banks there rather than in the multiplication of new ones.

THE CONCIERGERIE.

PARIS, June 4, 1902.

The French capital bears on its arms a ship with the motto, "Fluctuat nec mergitur." The city was built at first on an island which separates two arms of the Seine. It is extending every year, every day, in all directions; its progress will sooner or later break the line of fortifications built against invasion in the days of Louis Philippe; and it has recently been decided that that part of the fortifications which separates western Paris from the Bois de Boulogne shall be demolished, as the protection of Mont Valérien is deemed sufficient in that direction. The island of Lutetia, however, still remains the centre and heart of Paris; and nothing can vie, in our admiration, with the congeries of monuments to be seen from the bridges of the Seine, from Notre Dame to the Louvre, the Sainte-Chapelle, the Palais, the Conciergerie, the Châtelet.

There is a whole literature of this ancient Paris; there is also a valuable collection of all its aspects. Some collectors devote themselves entirely to Paris, and are the devotees of the capital. I have just noticed an interesting volume on the 'Conciergerie du Palais de Paris,' which traces the history of this striking monument from the year 1031 to the year 1901. The author of the volume, M. Eugène Pottet, writes:

"For twenty years, and several times a day, we have passed this old monument, with its pointed and black towers, which forms a part of the Palais de Justice, and is still commonly called the Conciergerie. All Paris knows at least the outside of this antique prison, whose gloomy appearance strikes the passer-by who goes along the Pont-Neuf, the Pont au Change, or who follows the quays opposite the Châtelet. It is chiefly thus, on a clear night and from the Quay de la Mégisserie, that the old edifice shows its majestic outline and its terrible beauty."

The Conciergerie is the oldest prison in Paris, and is an annex of the Palais de Justice, which shows in its irregular buildings every order of architecture. What is still called the Palace began to be occupied by the Capetian Kings. It was rebuilt by King Robert II., and enlarged by Saint Louis, to whom are attributed the vaulted rooms under the large hall of the Palace, called *Salle des pas perdus*, where you may every day see lawyers and judges in their gowns walking with their clients. One of these rooms is still called Salle Saint-Louis; another goes under the name of the Kitchen of Saint Louis. The Sainte-Chapelle was constructed by Louis IX.; it is a jewel of Gothic art, and has been compared to a reliquary. All visitors to Paris admire it. The Square Tower which makes the corner of the Quay de l'Horloge, bears on one of its walls a very remarkable immense clock, which has been often repaired. Its latest decoration is very rich, and one can see in it the initials of Henri II., of Diane de Poitiers, and of Henri III. It was in allusion to Henri III. that the poet Passerat wrote this inscription:

"Qui dedit ante duas, triplicem dabit ille coronam."

The two statues on each side of the clock are by the celebrated Germain Pilon, and represent Force and Justice.

The Palais, constructed and rebuilt at various periods, is wanting in harmony, but its complexity is easily explained by the numerous objects for which it was destined. Justice was administered in some parts; in others there were places of recreation for the people, theatres in which the Mysteries of the Middle Ages were played. The Fronde made it the centre of its agitations. The Parlements met in it, and afterwards the Revolutionary Tribunal sat in it. The solemn opening of the Parlement took place, after a two months' vacation, on the day following St. Martin's Day. At an altar, which was placed in the Grande Salle, was celebrated a mass which was called the Mass of the Holy Spirit—or the Red Mass, because the President and the counsellors wore red gowns. To this day the Red Mass is celebrated at the opening of the courts, but in the Sainte-Chapelle.

What is most striking in the general aspect of the Conciergerie on the quay is its towers. One, called Cæsar's, is where Ravaillac and Lacenaire were shut up. Queen Blanche is said to have inhabited another, called the Silver Tower, inasmuch as it once contained the King's treasury. A third, heavier than the others, has been called the Tower of Bon-Bec and also the Bavarde. It was used for torture, as Ravaillac and Damiens experienced. Some other towers were demolished; one of them disappeared, in 1871, in the fires lighted by the Commune.

We cannot go, as M. Pottet does, into an elaborate description of the endless passages, the prisons, the cabinets of the inner Conciergerie. Visitors are sometimes allowed, by special permission, to view a part of them; others are the exclusive domain of the judicial world. M. Pottet gives us the names of all the prisoners of importance who have entered the Conciergerie, many of them now completely unknown. We will mention only, in old times, the celebrated historian, Philippe de Comines, who was first in the service of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, and who then attached himself to Louis XI., Charles's enemy. Comines, whose memoirs are still read, did not, however, die in prison. Victor Hugo introduces in the "Roi s'amuse" Saint-Vallier, who left the Conciergerie for the scaffold, and received his pardon on the road; his daughter Diane, of remarkable beauty, having obtained it from François I. The poets sang the courage of Samblançay, Superintendent of Finances, who left the Conciergerie for Montfaucon, where he was hanged. M. Pottet gives us the text of Ravaillac's "ordre d'écrou," still preserved in the archives of the Prefecture of Police.

The history of the Conciergerie during the French Revolution forms a dramatic chapter in M. Pottet's volume. During the famous September massacre, nearly a hundred prisoners were killed, in the most atrocious manner, by men who made themselves the executors of what they considered the justice of the people. Among the victims was the ex-Minister Montmorin. These massacres, which took place on the 2d of September, 1792, were organized in the prisons of Paris by the Commune. When the Committee of Public Safety was organized on the 6th of April, 1793 (it disappeared only in 1795), it chose the Conciergerie as a sort of antechamber of the Revolutionary Tribunal, and the doors of the Conciergerie were almost always opened only to conduct the men and women condemned by the Tribunal, after a mock-trial, to the guillotine. About 3,000 suspects filled not only the Conciergerie, but the Force, the Abbaye, Sainte-Pélagie, the Madelonnettes. There were always at the Conciergerie several hundred people who knew that they had only four or five days longer to live. The Conciergerie saw Madame Roland; the Mayor of Paris at the beginning of the Revolution, Bailly; the ex-Minister of Finance, Clavières; the Duke d'Orléans; several generals. It became the prison of Marie Antoinette during her last days. M. Pottet gives very curious details concerning the life led in those times at the Conciergerie. "It was less horrible than would be supposed. Death was the order of the day, and people were resigned; the guillotine, being everybody's lot, did not inspire the natural fear which it ought to have inspired. . . . The prisoners flirted, read books, sang songs, chatted, smoked, played at cards, at dominoes, at trictrac." He gives us a number of minor poems composed in the prison, which prove that French courage and gayety never lost their rights.

We find in his book the list of the members of the Revolutionary Tribunal at the time of the Queen's condemnation. All these names are lost in oblivion; Fouquier de Tinville, the public prosecutor, is the only one who acquired an infamous celebrity. M. Pottet's notices of the principal men and women who appeared before the Revolutionary Tribunal are very interesting, as they are accompanied by the reproduction of many documents discoverable only after long research in many places. The list comprises the odious Marat, who was only for a moment at the Conciergerie, and was acquitted and carried away in triumph by the people; Custine, Madame Roland, Madame Elisabeth, Hébert, Danton, Camille Desmoulins, Charlotte Corday, the Girondins Brissot, Vergniaud, Valazé, Gensonné, etc. The Girondins were transferred to the Conciergerie at a time when, by a terrible coincidence, Queen Marie Antoinette was still detained there. Lamartine has given with many details the story of their last days. Their trial is a chapter of French history. There were twenty-two Deputies of the Gironde on the benches of the accused, among them some of the greatest orators of the time. They were all condemned to capital punishment for conspiracy against "the unity and indivisibility of the Republic." They left the court proudly, singing the Marseillaise:

"Allons, enfans de la patrie,
Le jour de gloire est arrivé."

A special chapter will be found in M.

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Pottet's book on Marie Antoinette. It is so painful that it is impossible to read it without emotion. The young and beautiful Archduchess who came to France to marry the Dauphin, may have been censurable for her levity, for her disdain of the rigid laws of etiquette, for her partiality for some favorites; but in the trial hour, when she became a sufferer and a martyr, she was, so to speak, transformed. It is impossible to find anything more pathetic than her attitude; she never had a moment of weakness; her defence was proud, as becomes a Queen, and her death was the death of a heroine.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of June 5, in referring to the recent Ontario elections, you seem to indicate that French and English interests there need "balancing." According to the last census, the entire French population of Ontario is 158,698, out of a total of 2,182,947. There is no comparison of the interests there.—Yours, etc., A. M.

DALHOUSIE COLLEGE, June 11, 1902.

[The slip to which our correspondent calls attention—a "balancing of Conservative and Liberal interests" should have been written—is the more venial in that the "race issue" occupies an absurd prominence in many of the Ontario Conservative journals.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

The Burrows Bros. Co., Cleveland, will reprint immediately in a limited edition, with an historical and bibliographical introduction by Felix Neumann, Denton's 'Brief Description of New York, formerly called New Netherlands.'

John Lane has just ready 'Reliques of Stratford-on-Avon: A Souvenir of Shakspere's Home,' compiled by A. E. Way, with eight lithographs by T. R. Way.

'Herbert Spencer, the Man, the Scientist and the Philosopher,' by Dr. Charles H. Rieber of Stanford University, with an introduction by President Jordan, is in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co.

'The Church and its Social Missions,' being the Baird Lectures for 1901, by John Marshall Lang, D.D., Principal of the University of Aberdeen, will be published directly by Thomas Whittaker.

The second volume of four in the handsome reprint of Sir Arthur Helps's 'Spanish Conquest in America,' edited by M. Oppenheim, comes to us somewhat deliberately from John Lane, as the first was issued in 1900. The editor is very modest in his emendations, expanding rather than having to correct the footnotes, and translating in these the passages from foreign authorities which Helps quoted textually.

At length we have an Anglo-American edition of the 'Book of the Dead,' put forth by an American house and at a reasonable price. It is a revision of the translation by E. A. Wallis Budge, keeper of the Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities in the British Museum. The English edition of 1898 consisted of three volumes, two of which were occupied by the hieroglyphic text. The present edition is in three volumes, and contains not only the complete text of the version, but also all the important vignettes which serve to explain the various chapters and sections. The translation is made from several papyri which combine to present the Theban recension with no less than 190 chapters, some of them in more than one form. Appended are translations of three other recensions—one dating from about 1000 B. C., one from the Græco-Roman period, called the 'Book of Breathings,' and the third, consisting of only two pages, from the Roman period. Appended to the whole is a useful index of thirty-six pages, double columns. The American edition lacks some facsimiles of papyri which are interesting, but not essential to the completeness of the book (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.).

'A Concise Dictionary of Egyptian Archæology,' intended as a handbook for students and travellers, has been prepared by Mary Brodrick and Anna A. Morton (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The former is known through her condensation of Brugsch's 'History,' which appeared about eleven years ago, and other minor performances, principally in connection with the Egypt Exploration Fund. A work like the present, which depends for its value so largely upon the soundness of judgment possessed by the editors and upon the trustworthiness of the specific sources of details of information, ought not to have been put forth without a bibliography and without references to recognized authorities. Neither of the editors can lay claim to independent authority, though either is, apparently, a competent compiler. The articles are all brief—scarcely a dozen exceed one page. Such condensation is admirable, but it has been carried rather too far. Some topics have been omitted to the detriment of the book, and some included without corresponding profit. The illustrations, almost without exception, are representations of Egyptian deities. Cartouches of some of the principal kings are given. The book is trustworthy in general, its defects being rather those of omission than of commission. The use of a smaller type would have been better, and would have made it possible to give more material within the same limits.

Mr. James K. Hosmer's 'History of the Louisiana Purchase' (Appleton) is a timely book in popular vein, and will doubtless have a temporary vogue now that short and readable books about the West are in demand. The author traces rapidly the early history of Louisiana; the subsequent steps in the negotiations between France and the United States being followed in more detail. In Mr. Hosmer's opinion, the acquisition of Louisiana, though doubtless the best-remembered achievement in Jefferson's Presidential career, was in reality "a piece of Napoleonic statesmanship—Jefferson and his negotiators playing only a secondary part"; and it is this aspect of the case, with its picturesque and even dramatic details, that he emphasizes. The novelty of the work is the fuller account than other English writers have given of the negotiations as narrated in the 'Mémoires' of Lucien Bonaparte. The larger illustrations, particularly the reproduction of David's Napoleon in the Public Library of Minneapolis, are to be commended.

A monarch who is compelled by law to hold close relations to a particular church has scarcely the freedom of religious expression that is allowed to a private individual. It is not surprising, therefore, that Mr. Walter Walsh, in 'The Religious Life and Influence of Queen Victoria' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), has been hampered by lack of material. He has brought together, however, several interesting incidents from her late Majesty's own journals, together with extracts from other diaries confirming the evidence given by these of the simplicity and earnestness of her faith. The value of the book from an historical standpoint is marred by its obviously polemical purpose. Its author is especially concerned to show that the Queen was a strong Protestant, and loses no opportunity of emphasizing every indication of her objection to Roman Catholicism and especially to Ritualism. He is evidently disturbed by several instances, especially in her later life, of conspicuous favor shown by her to Roman Catholic dignitaries and institutions, but he disposes of these by the convenient theory that in these cases she was acting on "the mistaken advice of her ministers of state, as a matter of state policy."

Miss Higgin's little illustrated book does not go far towards portraying 'Spanish Life in Town and Country' (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons), but does give a series of light, if rather disconnected, essays on the conditions of modern Spain. As the daughter of an English resident in Spain of long standing and wide industrial interests, she has had many-sided opportunities, which, without any special literary gifts, she has used very fairly. The total impression is of a country which is awake and in earnest, and which is working out its own salvation in its own way. In spite of Jesuits, Carlists, and Anarchists, there is hopefulness in the air. Noteworthy is the certainty with which, both from a Spanish and from an English point of view, Cuba is regarded now as a part of this country. Our purpose—constant since Jefferson, they think—has been at last accomplished. So, too, thinks continental Europe generally, to judge from the new "Stieler." In it the Gotha geographers have colored Cuba like Porto Rico, and add only the explanation, "Cuba hat selbständige Verwaltung." That is how independence looks from across the Atlantic.

Lovers of our native flora can have absolutely no excuse for not familiarizing themselves with our more interesting plants. The excellent manuals by Gray and the illustrated work by Britton and Brown give the widest desirable range for the student who wishes to take a general survey. Besides these handbooks of wide range, we have a goodly number of more popular treatises which, by means of clear outlines or by colored plates, put the amateur face to face with the plant and its name. The increasing demand for books of this class shows that we are likely to be well supplied with trustworthy guides to our native plants, and that, in the near future, the tourist returning from his botanizing in the nearer or the farther alps and fields of the Old World, will find that his European handbooks, with their attractive plates, are no better than those prepared here. The latest

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claimant to popular favor, 'Field-Book of American Wild-Flowers' (Putnams), comes to us from the pencil and pen of Mr. F. Schuyler Mathews, who has already done much towards making the people of the Eastern United States acquainted with the plants of the garden and the roadside, and with many of our plants of the field. The present treatise, of more than 500 pages, and containing very numerous plates and figures, will be found convenient, on account not only of its small size, but also of its arrangement. Mr. Mathews has a fund of interesting information in these crowded pages in regard to the more intimate relations of flowers to insects.

The veteran trade-union leader, Mr. George Howell, tells the story of the agitation to which he has devoted his life, in a bulky volume entitled 'Labor Legislation, Labor Movements, and Labor Leaders' (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The matter of the book is more of the nature of annals than history, and annals that are to a great extent unreadable. This was perhaps not to be avoided, as the author intended his chronicle to be complete and final. There are occasional episodes of interest, and the more recent controversies are described with spirit. The enlightened views of Mr. Howell attract our sympathy. He speaks generously of those who withstood him, as becomes one who has conquered, and he frankly confesses that he and his supporters were often in the wrong. Were the trade-union leaders always animated by his spirit, the industrial world would be more peaceful than it is.

As having essentially the same subject, we may mention a book more pretentious than that of Mr. Howell, although of less permanent value. It is entitled 'Labor and Capital' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), and is made up of the contributions of nearly fifty more or less eminent persons to the newspapers published by that eminent philanthropist, Mr. W. R. Hearst. As some of these newspapers have been excluded from clubs and libraries, contributions of this kind may very properly be reprinted in a form available to readers who would otherwise not see them. We cannot say that such readers will find anything new in the remedies and palliatives for industrial disputes here offered; but the theories of so great a body of cooks should have some noticeable effect upon the composition of the broth.

In the 'Terrors of the Law' (John Lane), Mr. Francis Watt follows a vein which he has already worked with some success in 'The Law's Lumber-Room.' The subjects here are Lord Jeffreys, Sir George Mackenzie, and Lord Justice Braxfield. All won the epithet "bloody" from their contemporaries, and we observe no reason in what Mr. Watt advances why posterity should modify the verdict. The effect of Mr. Watt's pleading in behalf of Jeffreys is rather to create an unfavorable impression as to his own standards of morality than a favorable one concerning those of his hero. The infamy of the other judges is narrower in extent, being confined to Scotland; but in that land it is enduring. Mr. Watt writes cleverly; his anecdotes are well told, and he shows that odium was in some cases undeserved. But he is more enjoyable if we do not take him seriously, and regard his book as meant simply to occupy a leisure moment.

The complexity of modern civilization is nowhere more strikingly illustrated than in the development of insurance. One may now secure himself against almost all conceivable forms of loss; and the insurance companies are making steady progress in lessening the causes of damage. One of the recent branches is that called guaranty insurance, which provides indemnity for losses occasioned by fraud, dishonesty, and breach of contract. 'The Law of Guaranty Insurance' is the title of a treatise on this subject, by Mr. Thomas Gold Frost, published by Little, Brown & Co. The author has endeavored to resist the temptation to dogmatize, and confines himself generally to stating principles actually settled by judicial decision; the language of the reports being freely quoted. His work appears to be carefully and systematically done, and it will be appreciated by the profession. We can, of course, not attempt to criticise it in detail, but we may commend the historical introduction as lucid and interesting.

Of the amount of labor involved in Dr. William Grant's 'Christendom Anno Domini 1901' (Chauncey Holt), there can be no question. Even with his team of more than sixty contributors, many of them of high standing and some taking their tasks seriously and broadly, his attempt to give a presentation of Christian conditions and activities throughout the world generally is hopelessly gigantic. But the task has been greatly reduced by a certain narrowness in many of these contributors, who have been inclined to interpret Christendom as Protestantism, and Protestantism as American missions. Dr. Grant laments this discreetly, and has done his editorial best to balance it with introductory notes. The first volume is geographical and runs from "Africa" to "United States"; the second is institutional, and describes the religious movements of the century. The last is singularly complete. Even a Paulist Father finds a ridiculously inadequate twenty-three pages to sketch the Church of Rome and Roman Catholic Missions. As a whole, the book is disappointing. The sketches are very uneven. Some are well done; others are provincial in tone and ineffective in execution. Yet, within its possibilities, the book accomplishes much, and may be read with advantage by those who regard Christianity as already moribund. The illustrations would be better away.

In the volume just issued of Dr. Rodkinson's translation of the Babylonian Talmud, the section "Baba Bathra" is completed. It considers various problems of the law of sale, the measuring of things sold, the division of inheritances, and the drawing up of binding deeds. Over it all the track of the Roman law is broad; but there are relieving points of humor, intended or not, as where Jacob, in defence of his conduct towards Laban, quotes to Rachel II. Samuel, xxii., 27. Even Oriental anachronistics could not well go further.

The great literary undertaking of the house of W. Sijthoff, in Leyden, consisting in the facsimile reproduction of the most important manuscripts of Greek and Latin literature, has now reached the seventh volume. This includes in its two parts a faithful reproduction of the two Codices Laurentiani Mediceï 68 I. and II., which constitute the basis of the text of the two most important works of Tacitus, the Annals and the Histories, and are of prime importance for textual and palæographical studies. For both parts, the Conservator of the Manuscripts in the Bibliotheca Laurenziana, Henry Rostagno, has furnished extensive introductions. The two parts together make 482 folio pages, and cost $75.

The first part of a 'Realistische Chrestomathie aus der Litteratur des klassischen Altertums,' by M. C. P. Schmidt, now completed in three volumes (Leipzig: Dürr), is worthy of the attention of all classical scholars. Professor Schmidt has been led to make this collection from a belief, which he has set forth in various brochures during the past three years, that those parts of ancient literature which deal with the sciences are worthy of a place in the school curriculum. To the three books which he has so far compiled he has given the names "Buch der Grössen," "Buch von Himmel und Erde," and "Buch der Erfindungen." The extracts included in the first two books, almost exclusively Greek, deal with mathematics, astronomy, and geography; while the third book contains descriptions of such things as ships, weapons, and clocks, together with other instruments and apparatus known to the Greeks. The volumes are well furnished with notes, and excellent introductions cover a field of Greek Literature seldom investigated by the classical teacher. Another interesting feature of the work is a series of eighty-seven illustrative diagrams and figures. However much one may question the advisability of introducing such matter into schools, it cannot be denied that the editor deserves thanks for having collected and edited in a masterly way such a mass of curious material from works not generally found in the teacher's library. The volumes will be of especial interest to the student who is interested in the technical side of antiquity.

We have received from the art-publishing house of Georg D. W. Callwey in Munich sheets numbered 31-36 in continuation of the meritorious series of "Meisterbilder fürs Deutsche Haus," excellent reproductions on cardboard suitable for framing, or for passing from hand to hand, of masterpieces here ranging from Ruysdael ("The Swamp"), Rembrandt ("The Scholar"), Hans Holbein ("Sir Bryan Tuke"), Dirk Bouts ("St. Christopher"), to the modern Alfred Rethel (1816-1859). The wrapper of each of these designs is utilized for a sketch of the life of the artist.

The *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June completes its tenth volume handsomely, having for illustrations a capital portrait of the late Prof. James B. Thayer to accompany a sketch of his life by Edward H. Hall; another, of the strong face of Mr. Moody, the present Secretary of the Navy; and finally, of Prince Henry of Prussia, which mates with President Eliot's gem of a speech at the Prince's Boston banquet on March 6. "The democracy," he said, with examples, "preserves and uses sound old families; it also utilizes strong blood from foreign sources." An example not down in his bill is supplied under the news from the class of 1853, with its fresh account of the extraordinary career of the late George Smith of St. Louis (born Connelly, son of an Irish porter), one of the

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most recent munificent benefactors of Harvard. And, speaking of necrology, it is remarkable that in this number is chronicled the death of the second only of the alumnæ of Radcliffe. Prof. A. B. Hart, we observe with regret, must hand over to another his survey of "The University," which he has conducted with singular ability and vivacity. He has a chapter here on the retirement of the clergy from the head of our colleges which was prophetic of the recent succession at Princeton.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for June is a brief preliminary account of some of the observations made by the expedition sent out by the society of which it is the organ to Martinique, to study actual volcanic action. Prof. Robert T. Hill, after describing some of the eruptions of Mont Pelée which he witnessed, says that "nearly all the phenomena of these volcanic outbreaks are new to science, and many of them have not yet been explained." Another member, Prof. A. Heilprin, who succeeded in reaching the top of the crater on May 31, reports that he "saw a huge cinder cone in the centre of the crater. The opening of the crater itself is a vast crevice, 500 feet long and 150 feet wide." Ashes fell about him in such quantities as to completely obscure his vision, and one particularly violent explosion covered him from head to foot with mud. A unique phenomenon recorded at the Coast Survey magnetic observatories in Maryland, Kansas, and the Hawaiian Islands was an electro-magnetic wave, which, on "the morning of May 8, pulled the magnetic needles aside from their usual direction for many hours." This is the first observation of the kind which has been made, and seems to demonstrate, not mechanical vibrations which have been previously noted during earthquakes, but a distinct magnetic disturbance resulting from volcanic eruptions and felt 5,500 miles distant.

At last the system of revised German orthography is becoming a reality. According to the joint agreement of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, a new and uniform system is to be officially introduced in all these lands on the 1st of April, 1903. This is the outcome of an agitation that began nearly half a century ago. The first move in this direction was taken by the educational authorities of Hanover in 1856, followed by those in Leipzig in 1857. The first steps on a greater scale were taken by Prussia in 1876, the other States of the confederacy participating later. Now, as the result of many conventions and deliberations, a simplified system has been adopted, the changes being chiefly along three lines, namely, (1) the omission of superfluous letters, but only where these are really not needed; (2) the spelling and writing of words in accordance with real grammatical significance, as in the capitalizing of true nouns; (3) the spelling of purely foreign words as in their native tongue. The new system is to be introduced in all the German schools of the three countries, and is the only one to be officially recognized. A considerable number of publishers, newspapers, and periodicals have already begun to employ the innovation, the general introduction of which will seemingly be easily effected.

—The President of the American Museum of Natural History, in his latest annual report, gives a summary of the work accomplished during the year by the different departments of that institution and by the various exploring expeditions under its control. The organization of a department of mineralogy was made necessary by Mr. Pierpont Morgan's gift of the famous Bement collection of minerals. Some twelve thousand specimens, representing most of the known established species, have been installed in the central hall on the fourth floor of the Museum building and placed in the charge of Louis P. Gratacap. A department of invertebrate zoölogy has also been established, with Hermon C. Bumpus as curator. The publication of the catalogue of types and figured specimens in the palæontological collection, which has been in progress for several years, has been completed. In it are described 8,345 specimens, representing 2,721 species and 190 varieties. The department of anthropology has maintained expeditions in several parts of the United States, and in British Columbia, Mexico, Central America, Bolivia, Peru, Greenland, Siberia, Japan, Corea, and China, resulting in large additions to the collections and furnishing much material for description. W. Jochelson and W. Bogoras have entered upon a new field of research on behalf of the Jesup North Pacific Expedition in the extreme northeastern part of Siberia. Their investigations among the Chukchee, Koryak, and Yukagheer tribes on the coast of the Sea of Okhotsk have been completed, and the material collected by them has been forwarded to the museum. The collection of models of totem-poles made by John R. Swanton of the same expedition is noteworthy, and serves to illustrate the significance of these peculiar emblems. A well-preserved totem-pole, fifty feet in height, has been received from the Queen Charlotte Islands and placed in the open space of the stairway in the west corridor hall. A. L. Kroeber has finished his field work in connection with the Mrs. Morris K. Jesup expedition to the Arapaho Indians, and the illustrated manuscript setting forth the results of these important investigations is ready for publication. The field work of the Huntington California expedition, in charge of Roland B. Dixon, has also been completed, and the collections are all on exhibition. The explorations of M. H. Saville of the Mexican expedition have resulted in the solution of several problems concerning the architecture of the celebrated ruins in the vicinity of Mitla. A pre-Columbian map or "lienzo" on native cloth (a unique example of this class of American codices) and a map of Teotihuacan painted on maguey paper have been obtained. The exploration of the Delaware Valley has been continued by Ernest Volk, who has gathered important information relating to the occupation of the region about Trenton and bearing upon the evidence of preglacial man in America. Local archæological explorations have been carried on among the rock-shelters near Westchester and in village sites and shell heaps on Long Island, especially those near Oyster Bay and Glen Cove, and much of importance relating to early Indian life has been learned.

—Among the ruined Central American cities of ancient culture, Palenque, Quirigua, the Usumatsintla towns, Tikal and Copan, the last-named attracts the greatest interest at present on account of the resumption of archæological explorations there. Its ruins are situated on the banks of Copan River, Southern Honduras. The site where the main temple stood is now a square platform with steep declivities on all sides. The temple is gone, leaving no trace behind except the western approach. When the Peabody Museum of Archæology, at Cambridge, sent its first expedition to the spot in 1891, the whole structure was overgrown with heavy timber. The elevation where the temple was is now known as Mound 26; at present it looks like a high-pointed pyramid, the apex and sides of which have been considerably reduced by the disintegration constantly going on. The western side of this pyramid presents the greatest architectural feature that has yet come to light in Copan, namely, the "Hieroglyphic Stairway." The steps of this stairway were formed by large stone blocks carved on the front side with the well-known calculiform figures, some of which are intended for numerals, and others for names, generic terms, and the like. The first who directed attention to the stairway and the excellent design and workmanship of its component parts, was Maudsley, and his genius also pointed out the former importance of the spot, of whose earlier shape heavy landslides had made recognition well-nigh impossible. From the latest measurements it appears that the whole width of the stairway, including the balustrades of 3½ feet, was twenty-six feet; that of the altar at the bottom, twelve feet. As regards height of slope, the portions of the stairway still *in situ* measure twenty-five feet, which is just one-fifth of the whole slope once covered by the stairway. The probability is that there were eighty carved steps from the base to the top of the stairway, where the temple stood. The several human figures which decorated the centre of the stairway show the sculptural art to have been crude, though full of promise, and the whole structure must once have left on the spectator a weird and awful impression. Of the inscription which formerly decorated the stairway, but a few broken fragments remain. The story is told by George Byron Gordon, with admirable photographic illustrations, in No. 6 of volume i. of the "Memoirs of the Peabody Museum."

—Lovers of Edmondo de Amicis will find pleasant reading in his latest little book, 'Un Salotto Fiorentino del Secolo Scorso' (Florence: Barbèra). The salon described is that of Ubaldino Peruzzi and his wife Emilia, who, from the late fifties onward for a generation, attracted to their hospitable parlors not only the best minds in Florence, but whatever strangers of note visited the magic city. De Amicis draws vivid portraits of the most interesting of the group, and he reports a few anecdotes; but it is surprising how little written record remains of the wit, enthusiasm, and learning poured out there for so many years. Peruzzi was one of the chief Tuscan Liberals, and a Cabinet Minister; but, while the talk naturally centred in politics, it was not limited to them. We are left with a particularly sympathetic impression of Donna Emilia, who, like her Parisian sisters, had the art of getting the best out of each guest, and of preventing the clash of opinions from leading to personal quarrels. Her perfect frankness was charming; and was not abashed even by the im-

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perious Ruggiero Bonghi, who, for all his Platonism, seems to have had not a little of Swift's sardonic nature. Thus, when Signora Emilia, after reading news of a great calamity, exclaimed, "How can God possibly permit these things!" Bonghi placidly answered, "If God does not exist, there is no use to discuss further; if he exists, believe me, Signora Emilia, he does not bother himself with these matters." Scattered through the book are small half-tone portraits of most of the persons whom De Amicis writes about with unfailing kindliness.

—Threescore years and ten is no longer looked on as the normal limit of human life, yet the custom prevalent in Germany of printing in the newspapers biographic sketches and "appreciations" of eminent men on the occasion of their seventieth birthday is probably a reminder of the time when the Biblical view was prevalent. This custom calls attention to the apparently increasing longevity of brain-workers, and is probably not disagreeable to those whom it chiefly concerns, because at their age the maxim *Nil nisi bonum* is usually applied in advance. One of the latest septuagenarians thus celebrated is Wilhelm Busch, who, although he has declared that the bubble fame no longer interests him, must have been gratified by the unanimity with which the journals agreed in pronouncing him the greatest German humorist of the nineteenth century. His name is inseparably associated with the rise and growth in popularity of Germany's chief comic paper, the *Fliegende Blätter*, to which he began to contribute in 1859, both as a writer of jokes and an illustrator of them. He soon got into the habit of creating connected groups of jokes, and these were issued separately as the 'Münchener Bilderbogen.' Of such as were issued in book form, the story of the two bad boys "Max and Moritz" became the most famous, both at home and abroad; and Busch soon found himself the "populärster Bilderhumorist Deutschlands." In 1872 he became an ardent admirer of Schopenhauer, and some of his critics claim that his jokes grew more cynical and pessimistic; but there was always a serious undercurrent to his laughter, wherein it resembles that of our leading humorist, and illustrates Schopenhauer's definition of humor as "hinter dem Scherz versteckter Ernst." In an autobiographic sketch he compared his jokes to naughty boys who have little regard for other people's corns, and, in turn, do not mind being scolded occasionally. In his letter of thanks to those who celebrated his seventieth birthday he referred to his pictorial jokes as his method of "triumphing a little over the annoyances of the world." These annoyances, despite his success and popularity, induced him, some years ago, to hide himself in a village named Mechtshausen, near Hildesheim, where, like Maeterlinck, he devotes much of his time to studying the habits of bees. He no longer writes for the comic papers. A Munich journalist surmises that this is owing to the fact that the public paid no attention to his serious books—'Kritik des Herzens,' 'Eduard's Traum,' and 'Der Schmetterling'—and that he said to himself in consequence: "Very well, if you refuse to read those books, neither shall you have any more jokes."

—'Zehn Jahre mit Böcklin' is the title of a collection of aphorisms and diary notes in which the late Prof. Gustav Floerke jotted down the impressions of his intercourse with the great painter, and which now have been published by his son (Munich: Bruckmann). These notes are all the more important for a just estimate of Böcklin's character because the master himself, confiding in the primitive power of his work, on principle avoided public utterance about his aims and ideals. Here for the first time (for the book by Schick had exclusively technical interest) both the painter and the man Böcklin are revealed fully and to the life. We are introduced to his æsthetic doctrines, his views about predecessors and contemporaries, his attitude toward nature and life, toward classic antiquity and modern culture, mostly in his own utterances; and through it all we come to know a personality of truly heroic power, joyousness, originality, and self-possession. Of the anecdotes in which the book abounds, we quote one: "Professor Horner of Zurich, at that time probably our foremost ophthalmologist, once told our Böcklin that he had never seen such perfect eyes as his. 'You probably can look into very strong light, can you not?' 'I like to look straight into the sun.'"

ENGLISH WORDS AND THEIR WAYS.

Words and their Ways in English Speech. By James Bradstreet Greenough and George Lyman Kittredge. The Macmillan Company. 1901.

This handsome volume of over four hundred pages is the joint work of two American scholars whom all will recognize as peculiarly well fitted to perform such a task. For many years Professor Greenough had not only his head but also his heart full of the subject, especially that part of it which deals with the Latin in English: and he was fortunate in having as collaborator a colleague thoroughly familiar with the present state of Germanic scholarship. The publication of the volume was almost simultaneous with the announcement of the death of Professor Greenough.

The book deals with a subject of universal interest. This interest has stimulated the publication of numerous books treating of words and their use. Some of them, notably Trench's, were very acceptable when published, but are now out of date, and most that have appeared in the last twenty-five years represented a scholarship already antiquated when they were issued. 'Words and their Ways,' on the contrary, is so far in advance of similar books that it is destined to displace them all, and demands of the reviewer more than the usual modicum of consideration. In a sense, the book is misleadingly named, for it deals not only with words, but, in one way or another, with most of the important phenomena of language. Thus, the origin of Indo-European speech receives consideration under "Cognates and Borrowed Words"; various syntactical constructions are smuggled into a chapter entitled "Fossils" (p. 205); and chapter seven confessedly deals with the rise and fall of the different literary dialects. Chapter eight is called "The Latin in English," but it really treats of the various foreign influences that English has been subject to.

On nearly every page is sounded the keynote of language-life—*change*. We find it in the treatment of the forms of words, the meanings of words, and the uses of words. But there is no regretting and whining, no loud protestations, no call to all lovers of English to rise up and save it from ruin. Full recognition is given to Jespersen's doctrine that the loss of inflection is progress, not decay (pp. 184, 280). He who still looks upon the Norman Conquest as the cause of the changes from Old English to Middle English, will find in this book little to strengthen his faith. The double phrases of the Book of Common Prayer—*assemble and meet together, bless and sanctify, food and sustenance*, etc.—which were formerly supposed to be based on the coördinate use of French and English words for the same idea, are simply dealt with as a stylistic feature of the language, which Professor Hart has traced back to early West Saxon. And yet it was but a few years ago that the scholarship of the past, in the person of Professor Earle, was fighting hard for this old dogma against the knowledge of to-day as represented by Professor Emerson.

The difference between the past and the present could not be better illustrated than by the statement: "Language develops by the felicitous misapplication of words" (pp. 217, 283). Simple ignorance is a positive force in language, and cannot be ignored or escaped. The present use of *restive* is undoubtedly due to confusion with *restless* (p. 194), but that present use is a fact, and those who soberly urge us to employ the word in a sense that would be misunderstood by practically all who might hear us, betray lack of humor as well as ignorance of linguistic forces. There is a gallant spirit, as well as good philological sense, in the attitude assumed by our authors not only toward changes due to ignorance, but also toward those due to other human weaknesses. Witness what is said of hyperbole and magniloquent speech (pp. 328-329). Again, on page 322: "It is the courtesy of democracy, not its assertiveness, that brings about the results which amuse us in *saleslady*, or *washerlady*, or the *gentleman* who sweeps the crossings." To this same courtesy is to be ascribed much that takes the form of euphemism, which our authors too exclusively ascribe to the superstition that it is unlucky to speak of certain things by their right names (p. 301).

The development of words is given in two chapters, one on roots, stems, and inflections, and one on derivation and composition. These chapters are perhaps the least fortunate in the book. That this appeared to be so to one of the authors, at least, is betrayed by the long apologetic footnote on pages 168-169. The aim to be clear, even at the expense of accuracy in details, is not to be quarrelled with. But the presentation of the subject of roots, stems, and inflections is here unwarrantably mechanical, and must give the learner a totally false conception of the nature of word development. He is told of a root-period and a stem-period, that antedate the period of "real words as we know them." It is admitted that roots once existed independently in actual speech, but it is repeatedly insisted upon that stems are not words. The learner is told that, "since stems are not words, and no such thing as syntax existed in the stem-period, we cannot designate stems as parts of speech—nouns, verbs, and so on" (pp. 172, 177, 178).

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Of course, there is a certain relative truth in this. But it is much more important that the learner should realize that what we call roots were words; and that when they got the determinates that we call stem-endings, they were still words; and that when further endings were added designating case, person, etc., they were words no more and no less than they were before. Nor is a language devoid of syntax until inflexional endings arise to express it; as truly as it does not lose its syntax when its endings wear away. It is obvious that the authors (or author?) intentionally liken these phases of language life to the processes of manufacture. "These words are built up by the mechanical means of word-formation" (p. 13). "*-like* has become a universal termination for the manufacture of adverbs from adjectives" (pp. 186, 187, 177). "We have examined the machinery which makes new terms by derivation and composition" (pp. 219, 281). In contrast with the regular factory product, *electrocute* is spoken of as "cobbled together." This mechanical notion of speech-development is still all too common, and it is to be regretted that we should find it fostered by so good a book as this. The truth is that there are as many languages as there are speakers, and that the great majority of "changes" consist simply in the imperfections of the copy that one generation makes of the speech of the older generation. The consideration of this simple fact at once makes clear the cause and process of numerous changes that remain vague and hazy as presented in the book before us. Surely, the true nature of language-development is caricatured when we speak of "the unconscious *habit* of the Spanish provincials to change Latin *f* to *h*" (p. 164).

One of the most pleasing features of the book is the wealth of illustration. Most of this is fresh and evidently obtained at first hand. And here we have one of the fruits of that long and minute study of Shakspere and Chaucer which has been carried on at Harvard under Professor Kittredge and his predecessor, Professor Child, to whose memory this volume is fittingly dedicated. It would seem as though no matter of verbal usage could be touched upon without suggesting pat illustrations from one or both of these masters of English. Many common misunderstandings of familiar quotations are explained, as Chaucer's *countenance* ('bearing'), Othello's *Upon this hint* ('occasion,' 'opportunity') *I spake, a forlorn hope* (Dutch *hoop* 'band,' 'troop'), *an exploded* ('clapped or hissed off the stage') *fallacy*, and Tennyson's misunderstanding of *courtesy* (p. 284). But we must not fall into the error of supposing that expressions like Chaucer's *not worth an oyster* (p. 311) are anything more than inventions necessitated by the rime.

When dealing with the histories of words, one is often tempted to lend a willing ear to an etymology that brings up a pretty picture of life or manners. The sober judgment of our authors, however, generally saves them from such temptations, and leads them to add the warning words: "This explanation is attractive, but not quite easy," or "This suggestion is not free from difficulties." But no one can avoid all errors. The verb *to chaff* has nothing to do with the chaff that fails to catch the old bird (p. 71); it is only a variant of *chafe*. *Wheedle*, whatever its origin, cannot be from German *wedeln* (p. 67). *Bamboozle* (pp. 63, 65) is a metathesized form of the North-Country *bombazle*, the frequentative of *bumbaze*, 'confound,' 'bamboozle,' which is a compound of *bum* 'strike' and *baze* 'confound,' 'frighten.' *Spill* did not leap from 'destroy' to 'spill,' but passed through 'scatter.' *The sun sets* is not to be confounded (p. 281) with the modern vulgar confusion of *sit* and *set*. It is ME. *setten* 'set (of the sun)', OE. *settan* 'subside,' 'go down,' and so is ultimately the same word as *set* 'make sit'; for the Germanic *-jan* verbs were not restricted to the causative sense. Our *gore*, 'a triangular piece,' is not from Old-English *gār* (p. 210), but from the weak derivative *gāra*. The Germanic word seen in English *under* stands for both Latin *infra* and Latin *inter;* hence there is nothing at all inconsistent (p. 236) in *under these circumstances*, or in German *unter diesen Umständen*. The word *near* (p. 200) has no mutation, and that of *next* is not *i*-mutation. Such forms as *varsity, varsal, tarnal*, as well as *possum, coon, cute, squire*, and *Miss*, are perfectly normal phonetic developments, and must not be identified with the slangy clipped forms *aft* or *after* for *afternoon, exam, prof, cab, bus, phone, photo*, etc. (pp. 61, 62).

The chapters on slang and on fashion in language are particularly good. Not only, however, does slang at times become good English (p. 74); perfectly good English may, by persistent repetition, become slang —for example, "Not much," "And don't you forget it." The use of *his* with names of authors, for example, "He knew his Homer from beginning to end," cannot be designated as purified slang (p. 61). It is simply an analogical use of the possessive that arose in speaking of the getting of lessons, thus, "He decided to postpone studying his algebra and to learn his Homer first."

We may congratulate ourselves that the English language is here found sufficient for the discussion of English speech. Only one or two German words still spot the page: *Umlaut* (for *mutation*), and *Sprachgefühl*. The latter term is used by the Germans for one's intuitive feeling for what accords with the spirit of the language. For this, English-speaking people used *feeling* (compare *usage* where the Germans say *Sprachgebrauch*) until they began to go to school to the Germans and learned the German word. Our authors employ *Sprachgefühl* (pp. 126, 147, 181) mostly in the sense of 'spirit of the language' or 'genius of the language,' for which the English terms are all-sufficient. One Germanism that has of late crept into the philological talk of English-speaking people appears on page 209—*fall together* (*zusammenfallen*) for *coincide*. Slips are extremely rare: "Journal of German[ic] Philology" (p. 118). *W. Ger.* (p. 143) needs explanation more than several of the abbreviations that are explained.

The work is equipped with a table of contents, an excellent index of matters, a nearly complete index of words, and a helpful bibliographical appendix. These features render it easy to get at any one of the thousands of items which make this rather a book of reference than a manual for the average student of English, for whom it is really too full. An abridged edition, prepared for use in schools and colleges, would meet with a warm reception.

FIVE BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

English Music in the Nineteenth Century. By J. A. Fuller Maitland. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mastersingers. By Filson Young. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Music and its Masters. By O. B. Boise. J. B. Lippincott Co.

The Philosophy of Voice. By Charles Lunn. G. Schirmer.

La Musique à Paris, 1898-1900. Par Gustave Robert. Paris: Ch. Delagrave.

In the opinion of Mr. Maitland, "music in England is the only one of the arts that has a vivid life at the present moment." Mr. Maitland succeeded Dr. Hueffer as musical critic of the London *Times*, and his books and other writings have given him a place among the few whose opinion is authoritative. Champions of contemporary poetry or painting might dispute his assertion, so far as those arts are concerned; but the thesis that music enjoys a healthy, vigorous life in Great Britain at present he has maintained ably in his new volume, which not only is by far the best book ever written on music in England, but brings the subject up to date from every point of view.

Before the nineteenth century there were periods when England had a spontaneous, indigenous musical life. Then, for a long time, it became merely receptive. Among European nations the English was for a long time far more ready than any other to welcome musicians from abroad. Not only English composers, but English performers, were underpaid; but, on the other hand, the constant importation of famous artists from the Continent gave English audiences the advantage of hearing everything that was best in the musical world. Attention is also called to the fact, to be pondered by chauvinists, that it may be doubted, supposing that the custom of this English hospitality to foreign artists had not existed, whether the money paid by the public to hear them would have gone into the pockets of English musicians instead. It was in the department of opera, naturally, that the foreign invasion was most conspicuous. The author has an interesting chapter on "The Palmy Days of the Opera," in which he shows, among other things, how Augustus Harris saved and revived grand opera by breaking down the stupid tradition of Italian being the only language for opera. By following the policy of singing each opera in the language it was written in, and by adepts in its style, grand opera has actually been made profitable in London as in New York; whereas during the long period when Italian opera alone ruled, "manager after manager was ruined by it, and the only marvel is that any one should have been found willing to undertake the business."

Mr. Maitland does not overrate Handel, whose oratorios were so nicely calculated to please British taste. He frankly discusses the British public's "ill-regulated enthusiasms," which, first in the case of Handel and then of Mendelssohn, made it impossible for any one but their imitators to win approval. He also dwells on the temporary craze for the oratorios of Gounod, of which he speaks in a tone of contempt strangely at variance with the enthusiastic attitude of

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Saint-Saëns; and on the behavior of the public in regard to the music of Brahms, Tchaikovsky, and Wagner. After discussing these "Foreign Dominations," the author treats of "The Church Composers," "Before the Renaissance," "The Transition," "The Institutions," "Sullivan and Light Music," "The Leaders of the Renaissance," "Opera in the Renaissance," "Followers of the Renaissance," "Drawbacks and Prospects." He is convinced that, in a thousand ways, the musical atmosphere to-day is more favorable to native talent than it was at the beginning of the last century; and that during the last quarter of a century England has regained a position she has not held for at least two hundred years. Even if one cannot agree with Mr. Maitland in the high estimate he places on some of the "leaders of the Renaissance," it is pleasant to come upon his optimism in a place where pessimism and talk of decadence usually prevail.

A more despondent view of music in England is taken by the author of 'Mastersingers.' "We seem," he writes, "to have the same machinery in London for producing composers as they have in Vienna and Leipzig, but still the composers do not come." Mr. Young deplores the absence of a musical "atmosphere" in England, and the public's addiction to buying reams of stuff that is artistically worthless:

"The taste of a people in art is shown not so much in the concert-hall as in the drawing-room, less in the picture gallery than on the dining-room walls; and in music the English drawing-room taste is for these travesties of art: all that is commonplace, characterless, maudlin, and invertebrate finds favor there. A mean prettiness is the most that is asked for."

The chief fault of Mr. Young's book is a tendency to verbose preludizing. But he has many interesting things to say, particularly about Charles Hallé, Bach, Tchaikovsky, Wagner, Mozart, Saint-Saëns, and others. A more able criticism than his of Berlioz has never been written, and the chapter on "An Irish Musician" is a just tribute to Dr. Stanford. "It is because Stanford's music has the power to grip men's hearts in a far greater degree than the music of his contemporaries has it," that, our author thinks, "his name and fame will be left standing among the ruins of much that now seems likely to endure."

'Music and its Masters' is a somewhat misleading title for a book treating of the art in such chapters as "The Nature and Origin of Music," "Music's First Era," "Biblical Mention of Music," "Music from the Invention of Notation to Date," and so on. The author is at fault in some places, as when he repeats the old legend (which used greatly to annoy the great song composer) that Robert Franz formed his name by combining the first names of his idols, Robert Schumann and Franz Schubert; or when he asserts that "Wagner left little or nothing to the conductor's discretion." He talks sense when he declares that "some of Johann Strauss's waltzes are quite as genuine music as are Beethoven's symphonies," and adds that he thinks it "pure affectation for musical persons to express a lack of respect for a good piece of dance music." He talks nonsense when he says that Chopin is not entitled to a place among the musical giants; but one may forgive him because he understands that "nature made Schubert the greatest musical genius the world has seen."

The author of 'The Philosophy of the Voice' says justly that "in voice-production the reign of anarchy has been reached—*Quot homines, tot sententiæ.*" His object is to induce in human beings a mode of voice-production similar to the spontaneous effusion of song-birds. This is a noble ambition, and Mr. Lunn's volume undoubtedly contains some useful hints and suggestions for singers. It is to be regretted that he deemed it necessary to obscure his practical details with mathematics and metaphysics. It does not help a singer to give him such peculiar information as that "mind is made up of three powers: the memory, the understanding, and the will," or to assert that "oneness of being" is "the necessary condition of life." The last chapters are on Stammering and Stuttering and Ventriloquism.

A new volume of M. Gustave Robert's 'La Musique à Paris' is always welcome. The latest volume covers the period 1898-1900, and gives, as usual, a detailed account of all the important musical events in the French capital. For reference, M. Robert's volumes are invaluable, but they also make good reading. Among the notable things in the new issues are studies of Rameau, of "Tristan," of Lamoureux, and several German conductors; of Gluck, Bach, and other composers. There is an elaborate parallel between Massenet and Paul Bourget, with an inquiry into the causes of their popularity. The Grieg-Dreyfus incident is discussed at length, and there are chapters on Richard Strauss and Siegfried Wagner. The last fifty pages are devoted to reviews of recent works on musical topics.

ROBERT'S ILIAD AND ODYSSEY.

Studien zur Ilias. Von Carl Robert. Mit Beiträgen von Friedrich Bechtel. Berlin. 1901. Pp. 591.

The Homeric Question, as to the composition of the Iliad and the Odyssey—whether these had one author or many, and how they came into being and received the unity which they unquestionably possess, whether by a combination of separate lays, or by organic development according to definite plans as true works of art—has known three clearly marked stages. In 1795, Friedrich August Wolf, in his 'Prolegomena ad Homerum,' which has had more influence on so-called higher criticism than any other book ever published, urged that poems of this length could not have been composed or transmitted from generation to generation without the aid of writing, and that this art was unknown in the Homeric age. Therefore, the poems must have been composed as brief lays, and were first united to form the Iliad and Odyssey as we know them by an Athenian commission of the sixth century B. C. At present, scholars do not doubt either that poems can be transmitted by oral tradition for centuries, or that an art of writing was known in Greece a thousand years before our era; but whether this art was used for literary purposes at so early an age is uncertain.

Wolf's arguments against the original unity of the Homeric poems were exclusively external. In 1837, however, Lachmann presented to the Berlin Academy of Sciences "Considerations on Homer's Iliad" which were designed to show from internal evidence that this poem was made up of eighteen independent lays, determined by various inconsistencies; for example, at the close of the first book of the Iliad, Zeus goes to his couch and to sleep, while the second book begins, "All the rest slept, both gods and men, but Zeus did not sleep." Although not all of his followers agreed with him in the details of his divisions, during the next forty years the Homeric Question was discussed chiefly on Lachmann's principles, but scholars came gradually to see that his theory did not explain the unity of the poems. In spite of all inconsistencies of detail in the story and differences in style and language, the careful, unprejudiced reader of Homer is more impressed by the indications of a great, masterful poetic mind and soul than by those of separate composition; while, on the other hand, all scholars now recognize that a certain independence was given to the parts of the poems, since only a few hundred verses were likely to be recited without interruption at one sitting.

The third stage of the Homeric question was reached in 1859, when Kirchhoff of Berlin applied to the Odyssey, which had been let alone by Lachmann's followers since it could not be divided into brief lays of any independence or even possible existence, the theory of an organic development from an original *Nostos*, or "Return of Odysseus," of 1,200 verses. Few scholars now doubt that we should seek not the complete, independent borrowed lay, but the source from which the poet drew. The free use of old material by the Homeric poet is quite certain, but can the older material be separated from the later elements? Fick of Göttingen, in 1883, under the influence of the theory now generally accepted that the earliest Greek epic poetry was in the Aeolic, not in the Ionic dialect, tried the experiment of reverting the Odyssey into Aeolic, and claimed to find that the portions which Kirchhoff had declared older submitted to the change without much difficulty, while the more recent portions were recalcitrant—thus proving, as he believed, both theories, that of Kirchhoff with regard to the composition of the poem, as well as that with regard to the dialect of the early Greek epic. The experiment was interesting, but the time had hardly come for a scientific translation into the Aeolic dialect, and the proof was not convincing. Other attempts to divide the poems into earlier and later elements on linguistic and metrical evidence have not proved satisfactory to scholars in general—partly, perhaps, because they were made too much under the influence of Lachmann's independent lays. Thus, Christ of Munich, in 1884, divided the Iliad into an original Iliad of about 4,500 verses and three layers of additions—many of these additions being by the author of the original Iliad.

Until last year no systematic attempt had been made in a large and thorough way to apply archæological tests for the determination of the relative age of different parts of the Homeric poems. The author of the Studies on the Iliad before us begins with a study of Homeric arms and armor, suggested by Reichel's 'Homerische Waffen' (1894, with a posthumous second edition in 1901). Reichel had shown

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that the best illustration of the large Homeric shield, borne by a broad strap over the left shoulder, is to be found in Mycenæan works of art; that this shield was so heavy as to render the chariot almost a necessity for quick and convenient transportation of the chieftain and his shield from the camp to the field of battle, and from one part of the field to another; that the chariot in general was not used as a standing-place for the combatant; that the wearer of the heavy shield had no cuirass, and that his greaves were rather for the protection of his shins from the bruises of his shield than against weapons or missiles of the enemy; and that the helmet was a strong cap rather than a complete covering for the face and head. In the first edition of his book, filled with the joy of his discovery, Reichel was rather dogmatic and impatient in his treatment of what seemed to oppose his view, and would allow no use in Homer of the later bronze armor—cuirass, round shield carried on the left arm, and greaves. In his later edition, he was ready to accept a Mycenæan cuirass or tunic of cloth or leather, strengthened with small plates of metal; but death overtook him before he completed this section of his book.

Professor Robert accepts Reichel's proof that in certain parts of the Iliad the Mycenæan armor prevails, but believes that, in still larger portions, the later Ionian arms have been introduced. The earliest Homeric poet, in his view, was familiar with the Mycenæan armor and composed his poem (the "Urilias") in the Aeolic dialect. To our Iliad, then, a two-fold test is applied: The passages which have no Ionic peculiarities held firm by the metre, and in which the Mycenæan arms are used—these Robert presumes to have been part of the original poem; while those which abound in Ionic peculiarities, and in which bronze cuirass, round shield, and metal greaves are used, are indicated as of later composition. No single one of Lachmann's or of Von Christ's lays can be selected as a whole to belong to either class. The analysis must be more minute, and is intricate and difficult. Not infrequently a verse-tag or an ornamental epithet which belongs strictly to the later armor, seems to have taken the place of its metrical equivalent which was appropriate to the earlier armor, while, on the other hand, a later poet, in his free use of earlier epic material, may have introduced into his description of war as he knew it, with cuirass and round shield, a clause, or verse or verses, which assume the earlier arms. So, also, in the language—a clause or verse containing Ionic peculiarities may have found its place in a narrative which was originally composed in Aeolic, the story being modernized, as it were, by the introduction of epithets referring to later usage, while an Ionic archaistic poet may consciously have introduced into his story old formulæ or Aeolic forms, endeavoring to represent older fashions, well aware that the Aeolic was the old Epic dialect. So the test of our author is not so final and precise as could be desired, but it leads to some interesting results. Robert recognizes 2,146 verses as parts of the original Iliad, which he supposes to have comprised about 3,000 verses; the remainder having been crowded out at different times to admit the narrative of later recensions. The "Urilias," according to him, was revised and extended by three later poets.

In the original form of the poem, we are told, some nine or ten Achæan clans or tribes are represented. Only half a dozen Achæan chieftains have chariots. Fair Helen is barely mentioned. Achilles is the centre of the action. The gods do not appear in human form, and Troy has no temple. The most obvious criticisms on the poem thus secured are that it gives too little information as to the cause of the war and the persons of the chieftains, and that if the verses have been so much disturbed and rearranged as our author supposes, no one but the original poet could with certainty assign to them their several original places. The first reviser is thought to have been from Miletus, the second a Samian, and the third a Eubœan. The author not merely allows an historical basis for the Trojan story, but even supposes that certain Trojan families are exalted in the Iliad, since their descendants in Asia Minor were patrons of the poet. Some narratives of conflicts are supposed to have been transferred to the plain of Troy and the Iliad from earlier epics of Greece, so that some of the Homeric heroes are represented as falling before Troy when they originally fought against Seven-Gated Thebes or in the Calydonian boar-hunt.

The Homeric Question contains too many unknown or uncertain elements to admit of a final solution by such a work as that before us, but this scholarly attempt to secure a solution is not only interesting but stimulating, and is likely to advance the study of the original plan and early growth of the Homeric poems as no other has done for thirty years. The author is one of the most learned and judicious of classical archæologists, and has rendered many services to philology by casting light from archæology on the history of Greek literature. For the rendering of the "Urilias" into the Aeolic dialect, Bechtel accepts the responsibility.

A History and Description of Chinese Porcelain. By Cosmo Monkhouse. With Notes by S. W. Bushell, C.M.G., containing twenty-four plates in colors and numerous illustrations. New York: A. Wessels Co. Pp. xii, 176.

This book contains a serious attempt to give to the student what he most needs, whether he study Chinese porcelain in great collections to which he may have access, or begin the gathering of such treasures for himself. The requisite limitation of the book to one octavo volume, with illustrations that should not put it entirely out of the reach of book-buyers in general, is a restriction that must be clearly understood. It was at a price of five hundred dollars that the great book on Oriental porcelain, prepared expressly for the sake of the Walters collection in Baltimore, was issued. Mr. Monkhouse's endeavor was to give the history of Chinese porcelain in forty pages, and a descriptive account of its different varieties in a hundred and forty pages more, and he had prepared before his death the text (which was found complete) and the twenty-four colored plates. Dr. Bushell, then released from his duties at Peking, seems to have taken the book in hand, to have made a few notes which are initialled, and to have prepared the black-and-white illustrations, which are fairly good half-tones, fifty-four in number.

It is, perhaps, right to say that Mr. Monkhouse has been well known as a writer on fine-art subjects; and although his work was rather that of a literary man who is drawn toward art, his books, so far as our observation has gone, are good of their kind—of a kind from which strictly critical treatment of any subject is almost of necessity debarred, but in which trustworthy historical record is mingled with such general appreciation of artistic work as befits the contribution to a monthly magazine or a book for exclusively popular circulation. Dr. Bushell, on the other hand, is one who is in a sense technically well informed on the difficult subject before us—that is to say, he has made a study in China itself of the porcelains which came within his observation; as also (and it is thought profoundly) of the documentary history existing in the Chinese language. The history of the subject is extremely baffling, and has been the source of endless absurd assumptions made by the enthusiastic collectors of the past forty years. No one who has mingled with the dealers and their customers but is familiar with the bold assertions: "There, sir, that color has not been made in China since the twelfth century," and the like—assertions capable of giving great comfort to the speaker, who is generally the owner of the piece in question, and which certainly cannot be disproved. Loose and vague as is our knowledge on the subject, there is still a slowly increasing body of historical data which can be trusted; and if in the record here given, pages 13 to 48, there is little to justify the running title "Historical," and much, very much, which should rather be in the "Descriptive" part, as consisting of minute accounts, "by a Chinese connoisseur of the sixteenth century," of separate pieces known to him, yet a beginning is made of a really historical narrative.

It is to be said, moreover, that the text of this book is very readable indeed. The history is intelligible, and the constant reference to other authors shows plainly enough upon what foundations it has been built up. The descriptive part is necessarily of the nature of a catalogue, but this is interspersed with frequent critical and descriptive passages sometimes more than a page long, and all very interesting. We are brought, however, to the less admirable parts of the book when we seek to use it in a practical way, as, for instance, in trying to gain some information about a given vase or bowl. There is no index whatever; and if one thinks for a moment of the immense number of technical terms scattered through the "Descriptive" pages, and notes the intelligent explanations of those terms, the need of an index becomes very evident. The "Glossary" is only two pages long. Then, the illustrations have no immediate connection with the text. This seems a great fault, or at least a great deficiency. To be offered several hundred descriptions of pieces in an exhibition of the Burlington Fine Arts Club, in 1895, good and intelligible descriptions, too; to have added to this twenty-four colored plates with excellent descriptions in the way of legend, and, finally, a lot of photographs as above described, but to have these three forms of information wholly independent each of the other, without any system of cross-references, is a

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shortcoming as great as that of the absence of an index. Perhaps but for the death of Mr. Monkhouse these inconveniences would have been removed. The best advice that the reviewer can give to him who would study this book is, to read it through carefully, and to cover the fly-leaves with pencilled notes of the passages which he wants to find again. Such private indexing may be carried even beyond the limits of the fly-leaves and cover linings. Even if you do for yourself the work which certainly author and editor should have done for you, you have the consolation that it will be not less but much more useful to you in that it has been work of your own. There is no "artificial memory" like that!

To have done with the shortcomings of the book, let it be noted that most undue praise is given in Dr. Bushell's preface to the colored plates. They are "three-color" prints, and as yet this process gives a not wholly satisfactory result—flat and thin, imperfectly defined, feeble in color. They are not bad as explaining the look of the piece, and the very fact that they are wholly photographic goes far to convince the student of their authenticity; but for beauty they can no more be compared with the splendid colored prints in the Walters book, to which, however, they *are* compared in the preface, than can the cheap colored work in our Sunday newspapers with the chromolithographs of Kellerhoven.

We have to say, finally, that nothing can be better than the critical tone of the book. It is insisted on throughout how completely the value of the ancient pieces is to be determined by their beauty—by their merit as pieces of "potting" and by the significance and value of their decoration—rather than by marks or supposed authentic dates, or by evidences of what is thought to be extreme rarity. The distinction between the finer ware with finer painting and the cheaper porcelains of which great quantities were and are made and exported to Europe, is well established and insisted on, as on pages 85, 86; and in connection with this there is the distinction, well made out, between that of the more dainty and decorative ware which is evidently intended for exportation to Europe, and that which the Chinese themselves care for. As we are continually brought up by the difficulty that the illustrations do not come where they are wanted, while yet so freely allotted to the book in general, so it is to be said here again that three or four pictures given on, or in face of, the pages named in the last sentence, or referred to from those pages, would make them useful indeed. Some of us know what is meant when there is mention of the pieces painted with European flower sprigs and known by the name of Lowestoft china; more numerous are they who can make out the veiled reference to what is called in our shops "Canton" and "Nankin" wares; but how good it would be to have this matter stated clearly and illustrated by well-chosen and plainly described pictures.

Napoleon: A Sketch of his Life, Character, Struggles and Achievements. By Thomas E. Watson. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

The quality of Mr. Watson's book on Napoleon will be most quickly apprehended by those who have read his 'Story of France.' Both works are written in the same style, are instinct with the same sentiments, and are based upon the same treatment of historical material. The style is dithyrambic, the sentiment is populistic, and the treatment of materials is eclectic. Napoleon, in Mr. Watson's eyes, was a man of the people, who rose high, and was not ashamed of his origin.

"When he, the Emperor, chosen by the people, stood up in his carriage on the streets of Paris, and pointed out to his Austrian bride the window of the room in which he had lodged when he came up from Brienne—a poor boy with his career to make—his pride in pointing to that milepost on the toilsome route of his promotion was that of all self-made men, was that of the man who scorns to win where he has not fought, was that of the robust conqueror who wants nothing for which he has not paid the price of manly effort."

Here, so far as we can make out, is the main reason of Mr. Watson's fondness for Napoleon. The Emperor was the product of the Revolution, and, by his beneficent legislation, he helped forward the cause of the masses. Thus, with all his despotism, he was a truly democratic leader, and great sins should be pardoned him. Much, of course, may be fitly said about Napoleon as the author of the Code, but Mr. Watson is wedded to this one conception, and his eclecticism consists in a choice of just such facts as will support a particular theory. Now to support a particular theory through thick and thin is to write, not history, but a polemical tract; and this is what Mr. Watson has done.

Vehement affections beget vehement dislikes. Mr. Watson cannot speak with patience of royalists, aristocrats, or English Tories. Whether from irrepressible zeal or from a love of composing rhetorical passages, he must burst forth at short intervals into denunciation or bitter sarcasm. Where a misdemeanor of Napoleon needs to be registered, the fact is quietly stated, and the narrative moves on. Where aristocrats or sovereigns are the offenders, Mr. Watson stops to castigate them well. "You go to France to-day, and you see around you, everywhere, Napoleon. You hear, on all sides, Napoleon. . . . Who does not know that the very soul of French memory for the past centres at the Invalides, where the dead warrior lies in state?" All this may be true, but Baron Coubertin is a good Frenchman, and a supporter of the Third Republic. In speaking of the Napoleonic sentimentalism which was affected by the Left under Louis XVIII., he says: "Unfortunately, the Opposition preached the benefits of liberty, and Napoleon had been a despot; the Opposition tended to fraternity among the nations, and Napoleon had been their oppressor." The idea that Napoleon was in any sense an oppressor of the nations seems to carry little weight with Mr. Watson. The sovereigns of this period are, indeed, fair subjects for facetious allusion, but that they had any just ground for opposing the extension of Napoleonic power is not admitted with sufficient candor. "And how had the wars commenced which Napoleon had inherited, and which he had never been able to end [1814]? By the determination of kings and aristocracies to check the spread of French principles, to crush democracy in its birth, and to restore to its old place organized superstition, class-privilege, and the divine right of kings." The assumption, it will be observed, is that Napoleon was anxious to give Europe peace. In close correspondence with this implication are words which occur in another place: "Never in Napoleon's career had the prayer of a vanquished foe fallen upon ears which heard not. The battle ended, he was ready for peace. He bore no malice, took no revenge. Splendid acts of generosity lit his progress from first to last." Even if we were willing to accept this extraordinary affirmation, something might yet be said for the Germans who fought against Napoleon in 1813. *Parcere subjectis et debellare superbos* is not a proclamation which readily commends itself to nations of the modern world.

Some time ago we followed Mr. Watson through one volume of his 'Story of France,' and found much fault with him in points of detail. His present book is also open to hostile criticism on the same ground, though it has been prepared with greater care. We do not wish to go through a similar analysis, for it would serve no good purpose; but we would point out that a writer must be pretty sure of his ground before he can afford to shaft his witticisms against "these recent biographers who dig and delve, and turn things over, and find out more about them a century after the occurrences than the men who took part in them ever knew."

Without being in any sense an investigator, Mr. Watson has read a good many books about Napoleon, and he always writes with animation. His liveliness is in many ways admirable, and we must confess that there is a stimulating note in many of his outbursts about freedom and social equality. On the other hand, his portraiture of Napoleon is marred by exaggeration, by the introduction of much that is irrelevant, and by the display of an almost personal resentment towards persons and causes that might have much to say for themselves. Such declamation serves to hide the truth and to create rooted prejudice in the minds of those who read one book on a subject, and one book only. Worst of all, in our opinion, is Mr. Watson's friendliness of attitude towards a union of Cæsarism and democracy. There is little danger just now to be feared from a recrudescence of the old régime, but there is always a lurking danger in the spread of the military spirit which, while cajoling with democracy, points straight to despotism. The French began in this way at Brumaire, and presently they were at Waterloo. After a while they began again at the *Coup d'Etat*, and this time the end was at Sedan.

An American at Oxford. By John Corbin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

The day after the publication of the Rhodes will, a London journal published a telegram from its New York correspondent announcing that the American papers were "preparing to discover Oxford." Mr. Corbin's offer of his services as the Columbus of this twentieth-century exploration is therefore exceptionally timely. His experience as a journalist, trained both to observe and to write, has greatly assisted him in producing this excellent record of personal impressions. Its graphic descriptions and general briskness are a consid-

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erable compensation for whatever is lacking on the side of scientific thoroughness. The author's skill in the art of putting things is evident in many delightful touches; for instance, in his account of the college scout as standing to the undergraduate "in somewhat more than the place of a servant and less than that of a parent."

In these days of athletic enthusiasm, perhaps the most generally interesting section of this volume will be that entitled "Oxford Out of Doors." It includes a rapturous paper on the delights of punting, and a detailed comparison of English and American football, as well as track and field athletics. Mr. Corbin was much surprised at first by the easy-going methods of English training, and, although he has since come to see that there is an advantage in treating a sport as a sport, and not as a task, he still criticises unfavorably the distaste "for the careful preparation that alone enables a man to fight out a finish to the best advantage." He believes that whatever excesses are found in American sport would be mitigated by the division of our universities into residential units, corresponding roughly to the English colleges.

But it is the chapters dealing with the social life of Oxford that give this book its chief value. It would be difficult to find anywhere a more admirable account of the manners and customs of the English undergraduate. Mr. Corbin is especially emphatic in his commendation of the arrangements which give every freshman an opportunity of showing his qualities, in contrast with the "mob and cliques" system of Harvard. For the American defect in this case also he anticipates a remedy in the further development of halls and fraternities.

The section concerned with education proper will, perhaps, be of greater service in enlightening the English reader about the weak points of the American elective system than in giving the American an insight into the actual character of Oxford teaching. The more obvious features of the routine of lectures and tuition are satisfactorily described, but Mr. Corbin does not succeed in giving an adequate impression of the nature of the university examinations. He is, perhaps, handicapped by the fact that his own interests are mainly in English literature, a subject which, at Oxford, has been regarded, until quite recently, as a parergon. As a typical example of a final honor school he quotes the regulations affecting the honors examination in English literature. This school illustrates, it is true, the Oxford practice of grouping electives into a well-ordered and connected course, but it is as yet in the experimental stage, and the number of candidates in it is extremely small. The course of study which more than any other is characteristic of Oxford—classical honor moderations followed by the final school of *litteræ humaniores*—receives very imperfect treatment. The description of the latter school as having for its subject-matter "the mediæval trivium and quadrivium, plus modern philosophy," is scarcely short of ludicrous. Mr. Corbin is equally wide of the mark when he says that, "in England, a tutor may be a scholar, and usually is not." In fact, one of the chief weaknesses of the average English tutor, whether at Oxford or at Cambridge, has been and still is a tendency to attach extravagant importance to niceties of scholarship. It is by tutors, or ex-tutors—such men as Bywater, Jebb, Robinson Ellis, Liddell, and the Nettleships—that the best work in English scholarship has been done, and it is from college tutors almost invariably that professors are chosen, for chairs requiring scholarship, in the Scotch and Colonial, as well as the English, universities. Mr. Corbin's divergence from the general judgment is probably to be explained, partly by the fact that he uses the word "scholarship" to denote qualifications very different from those which it traditionally expresses, and partly by his failure to make allowance for that extreme self-criticism which makes many of the ablest dons reluctant to publish, and accordingly prevents them from gaining an outside reputation. While, however, Mr. Corbin has by no means supplied the American reader with a complete account of the educational methods of Oxford, he cannot fairly be accused of any lack of appreciation of the Oxford educational ideals. Indeed, he goes so far as to sum up his whole account in the verdict that, for the present, the elements of which American higher education has most need may best be assimilated from England, and that the adoption of these elements, superadded to those already imported from Germany, would make American universities superior to any in Europe.

A few minor errata deserve notice. It is not a little confusing to employ "fellow" sometimes in the English sense of "don," and sometimes in the American sense of "undergraduate." It is not the case, as implied on page 161, that only a few colleges have an entrance test independent of responsions. The particulars given on page 184 of the time allowed in preparation for various examinations are erroneous. For examination purposes the academical year consists of four terms, not three, so that in each case the latest date of candidature is much earlier than that stated by Mr. Corbin. The name "Broderick" (p. 204) should be "Brodrick." The "gentleman commoner" was not identical with the "commoner" (p. 238).

The twelve illustrations are excellent. There is no index.

Formal Gardens in England and Scotland. By H. Inigo Triggs. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. 118 plates.

Of all the publications that have accompanied the revival of the formal garden, none furnishes such a fund of accurate information about the planning of good old examples as does 'Formal Gardens in England and Scotland.' The reason for this superiority is not far to seek. Other books, as Sedding's 'Garden Craft,' have been concerned with the sentiment of the thing; others, as Blomfield's 'Formal Gardens,' with history of garden design; others, as Miss Amherst's excellent history, with the whole story of the garden and its contents; others, as Sieveking's, with the garden in literature; others, as 'Gardens Old and New,' with the photographic presentation of well-known examples; but it has remained for Mr. H. Inigo Triggs to show us, by careful measurement and clear delineation in plans drawn to scale, the actual facts of the extent and arrangement of many famous gardens. Photographs, indeed, accompany the plans, but the plans give the distinction to the book, and force us to think of it as doing for the gardens of England and Scotland (in a less complete, though one trusts more reliable, fashion) what the work of Percier and Fontaine long ago did for the gardens of Rome.

After seeing the many photographs of English gardens that have of late years reached us, and after having puzzled our heads about their plans and wondered greatly about their slopes and levels, it is a satisfaction to have at last the real facts presented in a plain and unpretending fashion, quite free from vagueness intentional or unintentional. Who among garden lovers has not tried to understand the lay-out of St. Catharine's Court near Bath, and who, from photographs, has been able to make it out even inexactly? Yet here, in our newest book, we have a plan no bigger than one's hand and a section but half as large, making clear at a glance all the seeming intricacies of the place. So it is with some of the hillside gardens of Scotland, Balcaskie or Barncluith, charming in their irregular formality, but scarcely to be known, to one at a distance, without a plan and section.

Perhaps it may be said that to know the exact facts as to a garden's arrangement is to lose an indefinable mystery, the secret of its half-discovered charm, and this is doubtless true if we think only of the enjoyment to be had from looking upon the finished work. But it is well to remember that here in America gardens are being multiplied on every hand, and that what we lack is not an easy admiration of old things, but an exact knowledge of how best to solve our problems. This we can get, or rather our garden-designers can get it for us, most satisfactorily by studying the ways in which the best gardens have been planned; and it is just because Mr. Triggs's book enables us to do this, as far as concerns English and Scottish gardens, better than any other book, that it should and will meet with a hearty welcome from all serious students of garden design. We must add that while it contains pictures of many delightfully quaint and interesting old gardens, such as those at Levens Hall, with its hornbeam hedges twelve feet thick, it is a pity that it should have included so many examples of stiff and inartistic formality as it does. The painful neatness and the unpleasant forms of the beds at Drumlanrig Castle, or in the so-called "Italian" garden at Wilton House, show how a garden may be utterly dry and devoid of all charm in spite of the utmost pains in making or keeping it.

A fair proportion of the space is given up to the accessories of gardens, such as gateways, vases in lead or stone, sundials, stairways, garden-houses, and the like—a notable collection, full of useful suggestions. The introductory essay, while it contributes nothing new to our knowledge of the history of gardening, is a clear and systematic, though brief, record of the progress of the art of gardens in England and Scotland from the earliest to the present time.

Letters to an Enthusiast. By Mary Cowden Clarke. Being a series of letters addressed to Robert Balmanno, Esq., of

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New York, 1850-1861. Edited by Anne Upton Nettleton. With ten photogravure plates. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1902.

The main pleasure to be derived from this book, which is very attractively made, is that of contact with so agreeable a personality as Mary Cowden Clarke. Sir Walter Besant suggests, in his recent autobiography, that the nineteenth century did not really begin much before 1840, sounding before that no characteristic note. Mrs. Clarke offers something in the way of confirmation of this theory. Born in 1809, she was a woman of the eighteenth-century type. She had its effusiveness, its warmth, its sentiment—if sentimentalism would be too harsh a word. To say that she sometimes gushes would not exceed the fact. She is a near relation of Fanny Burney and her precious Evelina. But she is so simple, so unaffected, so kind, so full of life and joy, that she is a delightful creature; and, if she cannot help calling Leigh Hunt and Charles Lamb "dear" almost every time she speaks of them, we do not care. Such a good heart is not so ordinary that every light offence should bear its comment.

Her *opus magnum* was the Shakspere Concordance, long indispensable, and still widely used, though surpassed by Bartlett's. Central to her literary activity, it was also central to the correspondence which this book preserves—on her side only, with the exception of her correspondent's first letter. Her resolve to make the Concordance was fixed one day when she was walking with Charles and Mary Lamb in their garden, and it was an engrossing task for sixteen years. Mr. Robert Balmanno of New York was so much pleased with the completed work that he wrote to Douglas Jerrold, begging him to get from Mrs. Clarke one of the slips she used in preparing it, promising two ounces of California gold in return. On receipt of the slip, he sent her two gold pens. The correspondence which ensued is that herewith presented. The correspondents never met, but Mr. Balmanno followed up his first gift with cedar tubs and a cedar chest, and finally with a large rosewood chair, of which a picture is given. This gift, however, he made jointly with a number of distinguished Americans, among whom were Bryant, Longfellow, Charlotte Cushman, and Daniel Webster. Webster's gold piece was sent over to Mrs. Clarke, and great was her delight to have a piece of money that had "passed through his hands," as if they had any aptitude for keeping what came into them. The big chair taxed her powers of grateful expression to the uttermost. Her first letter to Mr. Balmanno was addressed "To the American Enthusiast, New York City," but somehow it reached its destination, and the friendship was fixed.

Mrs. Clarke does her best to put her enthusiast in full possession of all the facts that he desires concerning her personal appearance, that of her husband and other members of her family, and their way of life. Her geese are all swans, and her husband the finest swan that ever was. She is her brother's favorite sister, and she and her husband "have long been noted for being married lovers." There is seldom a hard word for any one. Edwin Forrest, whose acting she had found highly amusing, fares worst—"an incredible ruffian"; but out of sympathy with Mr. Balmanno's chivalric part in the Forrest divorce case. For a devout Shaksperian Mrs. Clarke was a good Baconian, writing, "Just now we have a bit of Bacon for breakfast—Verulam Bacon, I mean. We are in a course of that fine, relishing old fellow, and racy and savoury and pungent and exquisitely choice do we find him on reperusal." The passage on "the droll school of young men who call themselves the Pre-Raffaellites" is rubricated amusingly in the recent memoirs of the brothers Dalziel, where it appears that Rossetti's illustration of Tennyson's "St. Cecilia" was too deep for the poet: he could find no excuse for it in his poem. Mrs. Clarke cannot agree with Mr. Balmanno that Flaxman is "the Shakspere of art," and there is nothing strange in that. It is interesting to find her asking her friend if he knows anything of a book called 'The Scarlet Letter.' Two of the chapters she scored with her pencil on every page. Some touches suggest to her a woman, but on the whole she is inclined to think the author a man. Her simultaneous admiration of Webster and Harriet Beecher Stowe's 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' imports that her knowledge of our American politics was not nicely critical.

There was a good stock of energy in her. The Concordance preface was signed in every volume by her own hand, and she wrote all the signatures at one sitting, writing from breakfast till sundown. There is a cordial greeting for Collier's emendations of Shakspere's text, with strange acceptance of "blankness of the dark" for "blanket of the dark" in Lady Macbeth's speech. In 1858 she edited an edition of Shakspere, and she writes pathetically of her troubles with the various readings; they flavor every meal; she cogitates them in her walks; she dreams of them in her sleep. Nevertheless, a year's time seems to have been sufficient for the task, and the fact does not imply immoderately exigent ideals.

There are pleasant glimpses of Mrs. Clarke's life on the Italian coast, and we find Mr. Balmanno extending his knowledge of geography by questioning as to whether Nice was on the island of Sardinia. His death occurred in August, 1861. Could we have had his side of the correspondence, throughout its length, the book would have been much more entertaining. He did not misname himself an enthusiast, and in Mrs. Clarke he found a woman after his own heart. She was grateful for his admiration, and rewarded it with an affection which, in its joyous freedom, had no taint of fault or fear. Charles Cowden Clarke, who was twenty years older than his wife, died in 1889. The wife outlived him nearly ten years, with great abundance of all that which should accompany old age.

The Life and Works of Friedrich Schiller. By Calvin Thomas. Henry Holt & Co. 1901.

It is a genuine pleasure to meet with a scholar of Professor Thomas's type, a man who, painstaking in his collection of material, cautious in his research, unbiassed in his judgment, sober in his conclusions, at the same time displays a decided individuality of his own, never loses himself in the mass of detail, and always takes the larger view of a subject. All these qualities, which perhaps may be summed up under the head of true common sense, Professor Thomas has thus far manifested chiefly as editor of classic German dramas, and although his notes and commentaries here and there, especially as regards Goethe's "Faust," betray a certain lack of the deeper poetic and philosophical insight, yet the fact remains that, on the whole, his editions are models of sound scholarship and appreciative criticism.

The present book, which for the first time shows him in the rôle of literary biographer, in every way confirms our previous impression of Professor Thomas's scholarly worth. It will not easily be superseded. Schiller has thus far fared ill at the hands of English writers. Carlyle's youthful effusion, noble and inspiring as it is, can of course in no way satisfy the more serious demands of our own time. Boyesen's and Sime's accounts, although agreeable and sympathetic reading, are essays rather than biographies; and the latest English Schiller biographer, Nevinson, is so far removed from a just understanding of his hero's character that one fails to see why he should have chosen to depict it. Professor Thomas's book is the first comprehensive account in English of Schiller's life and works which will stand the test of time. Based upon German scholarship, it is by no means a mere copy of a German model. Indeed, it would be hard to name a German biography which fulfils equally well the peculiar function of this book, namely, that of making Schiller live before our eyes.

In the first place, Professor Thomas is in real sympathy with his hero, and he consequently spares himself no pains to enter into his mode of thought and feeling. He accompanies him in his various moods and intellectual transformations; he follows conscientiously the many traces of literary indebtedness and influence; he observes him at work, wrestling with his conceptions and shaping his ideals; he rejoices with his triumphs and mourns with his failures; and even where, as in the case of Schiller's philosophical writings, he is not able to accept his views, he at least respects them. In short, there is a most refreshing note of personal affection in this book; a note which is perhaps all the more appealing because it proceeds from a somewhat caustic, matter-of-fact temper.

Secondly, Professor Thomas has historical perspective. He tries to revive not only Schiller, but his time as well; and he succeeds. Indeed, one might call this book a gallery of portraits from the end of the eighteenth century. The Würtemberg court of Schiller's youth, Dalberg, Charlotte von Kalb, Körner's circle at Leipzig, the society of Jena and Weimar, Goethe's and Schiller's friendship—these are some of the episodes and personalities in the portrayal of which is displayed the true art of historical narration; and throughout the book this same character is preserved.

Finally, the book has good proportions, and in this respect is superior to all German Schiller biographies save that of Wychgram. It can be enjoyed from beginning to end; and it is very much to be hoped that it will be read by many, particularly by large numbers of college students. It is wholesome food.

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The Deer Family. By Theodore Roosevelt and Others. Macmillan. 1902.

This is the first of the ten proposed volumes which are to compose "The American Sportsman's Library." If the rest of the series are equally good, Mr. Caspar Whitney may well be proud of his success as editor. In the present volume, Mr. Roosevelt treats of "The Mule Deer or Rocky Mountain Blacktail," "The Whitetail Deer," the "Pronghorn Antelope," and the "Wapiti or Round-horned Elk." The introduction, by Mr. Roosevelt, gives some interesting information as to the nomenclature of wild creatures adopted in this country. The newcomers to America named many birds and animals from their resemblance, real or fancied, to those they were familiar with in the Old World. For instance, our so-called quail is not a quail at all. Our partridge is not a partridge, but a grouse, as are our Western birds known locally as fool hens, sage hens, and prairie chickens. The prongbuck of the plains, "an animal standing as much alone among ruminants as does the giraffe," is uniformly known as an antelope; "the American true elk and reindeer were rechristened moose and caribou, and the huge stag was called an elk." The bison was called a buffalo, which Mr. Roosevelt says "was no worse than the way in which every one in Europe called the Old World bison an aurochs." This is questionable, as the aurochs, or urus, meaning "wild ox," was the name in use in western and northern Europe by the natives of those parts before they had ever heard the word "bison," or "bonassus," or knew of the existence of the Greeks or Romans. Mr. Roosevelt allows, in addition to the so-called antelope, six wholly distinct kinds of deer in North America—the moose, caribou, wapiti, whitetail, and the two blacktails.

There are incidentally, in the introduction and throughout the book, strong appeals to humanity and moderation in sport. Mr. Roosevelt says:

"The best test of the worth of any sport is the demand that sport makes upon those qualities of mind and body which, in their sum, we call manliness. Wherever possible, he [the sportsman] should keep a notebook and should carefully study and record the habits of the wild creatures, especially when in some remote regions to which trained scientific observers but rarely have access."

The blacktail deer of the Rocky Mountains has now the greatest range of any member of the deer family, except the whitetail, although it is fast diminishing in numbers. It is still plentiful in some parts of Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, and over the northern line of the latter State in the British possessions. It is also found in Lower California and in the northern part of Mexico. There are in the book under notice several very instructive maps, contributed by Dr. Merriam of the Smithsonian Institution, which show the ranges in 1900 of the different deer of North America.

Following the long and interesting chapter on the blacktail deer, comes one on his smaller brother, the whitetail, or Virginia deer, the most widely distributed and plentiful of American big game. Mr. Roosevelt says:

"It holds its own in the land better than any other species because it is by choice a dweller in the thick forests and swamps, the places around which the tide of civilization flows, leaving them as islets of refuge for the wild creatures which formerly haunted all the country."

It will, unlike the blacktail, breed in conditions of limited freedom, and there are to-day not half a dozen States in the Union where the wild whitetail is not found. It flourishes with the most moderate protection, and is probably now more plentiful in New York and some of the Eastern States than it was twenty-five years since. There are still many deer killed by the very noxious and illegal methods of "crusting," when the snow is deep with an icy crust on top, through which the poor animals have to break at each step, and can easily be tired out and knocked in the head by a brute on snowshoes, or even without them. Hunting from a boat at night with a jack or light is also very destructive, and deer may thus be killed by any self-styled sportsman without the least skill or exertion; nor is either of these two qualifications necessary for success in the pursuit of deer driven to water by hounds, and shot from a boat rowed by a guide, who holds the unfortunate quarry by the tail while his partner in crime shoots it, at the other end. The ideal and sportsmanlike method of hunting the white-tail, and, in fact, all of the deer tribe, except perhaps the antelope, is by still hunting, and Mr. Roosevelt devotes considerable space to this interesting and really intellectual pursuit, conveying his instructions in a pleasing manner, and largely by narratives of his personal experiences, which have been varied and extensive.

Chapters on the prong-horn antelope and the wapiti, or round-horned elk, complete Mr. Roosevelt's part of the volume. A fact not generally familiar about the antelope is that "it is the only hollow-horn ruminant known which annually sheds its horns as deer do their antlers. Of course, only the horn sheaths are shed, leaving underneath the soft and bristle-haired new horn." The shedding takes place in the late fall, and, as the new horns harden in a few days, there is but a brief period during which any signs of the shedding remain. As the antelope is an animal of the open plains, and seems less able to adapt itself to changed conditions of life than any of the deer tribe, it consequently disappears before the advance of man in regions where the prairie land is limited in extent. Mr. Roosevelt, on pages 99 to 102, exhibits entertainingly the conditions which affect with great degrees of favor or disfavor the existence of various kinds of big game. The curiosity of the antelope is frequently his undoing, and though he has learned caution by experience, he may still, on occasion, be lured within shot by the waving of a red handkerchief or by the display of other unusual sights. The most exciting way of pursuing him is on horseback, and shots may thus be got on account of his general tendency to run straight on after he has decided on his course. This enables the pursuer frequently to cut across and head him off—as he dislikes to turn aside from the point towards which he is running.

Though fast decreasing, the antelope will doubtless survive the wapiti, whose range is but a small fraction of what it was fifty years since, and is rapidly growing less.

"Originally the wapiti was found from the Pacific Coast east across the Alleghanies, through New York to the Adirondacks, through Pennsylvania into Western New Jersey, and far down into the mid-country of Virginia and the Carolinas. It extended northward into Canada from the great lakes to Vancouver, and southward into Mexico along the Rockies."

A glance at Dr. Merriam's map of the range of elk in 1900 (p. 134) will show in how small a portion of this vast territory he is now to be found, and how timely is Mr. Roosevelt's appeal:

"Surely all men who care for nature, no less than all men who care for big-game hunting, should combine to try to see that not merely the States, but the Federal authorities, make every effort and are given every power to prevent the extermination of this stately and beautiful animal, the lordliest of the deer kind in the entire world."

The "Elk of the Pacific Coast," "The Mule Deer," and "The Columbia Blacktail" are the titles of three chapters contributed by T. S. Van Dyke, whose book, 'The Still-Hunter,' published in 1883, is easily the best on the subject ever written. That was mainly a work of instruction and a text-book, while this is perhaps rather broader in its scope, but still shows quite as intimate knowledge on all matters of woodcraft, of the habits of the animals described, and of the sportsmanlike methods of hunting them. No veteran and accomplished sportsman can read these chapters of Mr. Van Dyke's without learning something and feeling glad that they have been written. Lack of space prevents any extended notice of Mr. Van Dyke's excellent contribution as well as that of Mr. Daniel G. Elliot on "The Caribou," and of Mr. Andrew J. Stone on "The Moose." These are fully up to the high standard of the preceding chapters. The moose is to most hunters a rather more captivating animal than any other of the big-game species, except, perhaps, the bighorn. He is so large, so ungainly, and yet so keen of smell and hearing, and of such incredible activity in eluding and escaping danger, that one can't avoid respecting and admiring him. He lives in the greatest wildernesses in the New World, and, as Mr. Stone says, "To become a successful moose hunter is to reduce hunting to a science. . . . The art is one that can be acquired only by actual experience, and all that could be written for the uninitiated would be of but slight service." Mr. Stone gives a number of illustrations and measurements of moose antlers, the largest, of course, being from Alaska, and those from the Kenai Peninsula (the *Alces gigas*) of that Territory, surpassing all in size. The spread of the antlers shown is from 64 to 74 inches. A head from Canada or Maine of above 60 inches is rare, while the average is little over 50 inches. "Nine heads secured on the Kenai in the fall of 1900 averaged slightly above 65 inches."

The illustrations, chiefly by Carl Rungius, are excellent and appropriate, and the entire contents of the book bear evidence of having been written by men who have a loving and educated interest in their subjects.

The American Federal State: A Text-Book in Civics for High Schools and Academies. By Roscoe Lewis Ashley, A.M. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xlv, 599.

Mr. Ashley's book is the most pretentious work on the government of the United States which has lately come to our notice; indeed, its size seems likely to restrict somewhat its use in secondary schools,

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for whose needs it is particularly designed. The author's endeavor has been, he tells us, not merely to describe the organization and work of the several departments of government, national, State, and local, but also to show the relations of the citizens to the Government and to each other. This presupposes some understanding of the nature of government and the State, and of the steps by which our political institutions have come to be what they are. To the provision of this equipment somewhat more than a third of the body of the book is devoted. The historical outline does not attempt to tell over again the general history of the United States, but dwells on those events illustrative of the principles of political science and federal government which Mr. Ashley deems it important to enforce. Then follows an account of the organization and work of the various forms of government, with explanation of their interrelations, description of party organization and primary political machinery, and exposition of the duties and obligations of citizenship. Mr. Ashley shows skill in the selection of facts, and wisely leaves untouched a great mass of data which not a few writers and teachers have been led to regard, quite unwarrantedly, as "administration"; and while his treatment, particularly in the field of executive activities, shows no marked advance over that of his predecessors, the general presentation is clear, accurate, and sensible.

Questions of detail aside, the merits of a textbook commonly depend on the soundness of the principles on which it is constructed and its practical serviceableness in the classroom. As to the latter point, we can but think that, in the present state of historical study in this country, books like Mr. Ashley's will seem to many teachers not altogether successful attempts to cover two fields at once. The average high school is, we fear, likely to reject pretty much the whole of Mr. Ashley's historical section, and begin at once with the account of the national government, for the very practical reason that classes which have already had a systematic course in American history will not cheerfully go over the same ground again as a part of the study of American government. The reason suggests the answer to the other inquiry. While we are frank to say that, among recent manuals of civil government, Mr. Ashley's book has no superior, we are also bound to think that it is not the kind of book that has long been needed. What is still wanted, as it seems to us, is a book which will show the historical development of American political institutions as the ground of its description of their practical working. There can be no proper understanding of political methods without an understanding of the way in which they have come to be what they are, and this is not to be attained by setting forth certain general historical facts in one part of the book and descriptive facts in another. Mr. Ashley has not sinned more than others, and his book will certainly prove useful to many teachers, but we can but hold that it would have been a better book had it been of a different sort.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brinkley, F. Japan: Its History, Arts, and Literature, Vols. V. and VI. (Oriental Series.) Boston: J. B. Millet Co.
Brontë, Charlotte. Jane Eyre: To Which is Added "The Moores," an Unpublished Fragment. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.60.
Defendorf, A. R. Clinical Psychiatry. Macmillan. $3.50.
Eggert, C. A. Wildenbruch's Das edle Blut. American Book Co. 30 cents.
Fallot, E. L'Avenir Colonial de la France. Paris: Ch. Delagrave.
Findlay, J. J. Principles of Class Teaching. Macmillan. $1.25.
Haviland, C. A. A Lawyer's Idle Hours. Brooklyn, N. Y.: The Author (982 Fulton St.). 50c.
Kersting, Rudolf. The White World: Life and Adventures within the Arctic Circle Portrayed by Famous Living Explorers. (Issued under the Auspices of the Arctic Club.) Lewis, Scribner & Co. $2.
Lang, J. M. The Church and its Social Mission. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Thomas Whittaker. $1.60.
Lyon, R. A. Love-Story Masterpieces. (Chosen from Meredith, Stevenson, Mitchell, and Holmes.) Evanston, Ill.: William S. Lord. $1.
Mallary, R. De W. Lenox and the Berkshire Highlands. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Mowry, A. M. First Steps in the History of England. Silver, Burdett & Co. 70 cents.
Nield, Jonathan. A Guide to the Best Historical Novels and Tales. London: Elkin Mathews; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Peters, Eleanor B. Hugh Peter. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Pirenne, Henri. Geschichte Belgiens. Zweiter Band. Gotha: Friedrich Andreas Perthes.
Raine, Allen. A Welsh Witch. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Reinsch, P. S. Colonial Government. (The Citizen's Library.) Macmillan. $1.25.
Sheldon, Samuel, and Mason, Hobart. Alternating-Current Machines: Being the Second Volume of Dynamo-Electric Machinery. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.50.
Sidney, Margaret. Five Little Peppers Abroad. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.10.
Slate, Frederick. Physics: A Text-Book for Secondary Schools. Macmillan. $1.10.
Smith, C. W. The South African War and the "Bear" Operator. London: P. S. King & Son; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Smith, J. W. Training for Citizenship. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co.
Stephen, Leslie. George Eliot. (English Men of Letters.) Macmillan. 75 cents.
The Literature of American History (A. L. A. Annotated Lists.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Thompson, Henry. "The Unknown God"? Frederick Warne & Co. 60 cents.
Thorpe, T. E. Essays in Historical Chemistry. Macmillan. $4.
Thwaites, R. G. Father Marquette. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Travers, Graham. The Way of Escape. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Way, A. E. Reliques of Stratford-on-Avon. (Flowers of Parnassus.) John Lane.
Wesselhoeft, E. C. German Composition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
West, Prof. W. M. Ancient History to the Death of Charlemagne. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.50.
Wheatley, H. B. How to Make an Index. (Book Lover's Library). London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Wiener, Prof. L. Anthology of Russian Literature. Part 1. 10th to 18th Century inclusive. Putnams.
Wilson, H. L. The Spenders. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Wister, Owen. The Virginian. Macmillan. $1.50.
Wright, G. F. Asiatic Russia. 2 vols. McClure, Phillips & Co. $15.

Britton's Flora

A Manual of the Flora of the Northern States and Canada. By Director N. L. BRITTON of the New York Botanical Garden. 1080 pp. 8vo, $2.25 *net*.

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